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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 17, 1885.

The Week.

SENATOR HOAR'S bill for the repeal of the Tenure of Office Act is a step which the friends of civil-service reform will heartily approve. They have always held that the rule and theory which prevailed down to 1867, giving the President power to make removals without the consent or coöperation of the Senate, were the true ones. The change was made in 1867 in order to put a curb upon the wild cavortings of Andrew Johnson. Previous to that time the commissions to executive officers read as follows: "To have and to hold the said office with all the powers, privileges, and emoluments thereunto of right appertaining unto him, . . . during the pleasure of the President of the United States for the time being." The Tenure of Office Law made it necessary to erase the sentence printed in italics and insert in its stead: "subject to the conditions prescribed by law." These prescriptions were that he should hold the office during the term for which he was appointed unless sooner removed, by and with the consent of the Senate. The President was given power, during a recess of the Senate, to suspend an officer when he had received evidence satisfactory to himself that that officer was guilty of misconduct in office, or crime, or for any reason had become incapable or legally disqualified, but was required to report to the Senate the evidence and reasons for his action. An effort was made in 1869 to repeal this law, and a bill restoring the old order of things passed the House, but was rejected by the Senate. A compromise measure was adopted which decrees in substance that any officer shall hold his office during the entire term for which he was appointed, unless the Senate consents in some form to his removal, and it is under this law that President Cleveland is acting. The restriction upon his freedom of action is illogical and unwise. He has full power of removal over the large class of officers not nominated to the Senate, and every reason in favor of that power in the one case is applicable to its exercise in the other.

Senator Edmunds's idea of uniting his Electoral Count Bill with Senator Hoar's Presidential Succession Bill strikes us as admirable. The two measures not only belong naturally together, but if they are united their speedy passage by both houses will be made more easy and certain. Both measures ought to have been made laws at the last session, and they probably would have been had the Democratic majority in the House been less actuated by partisanship. Now partisan as well as patriotic reasons will prompt the Democrats to favor them, and there is no doubt of their quick passage through the House. Senators Hoar and Edmunds are showing a commendable superiority to partisan influences in thus promptly bringing the bills forward again, but the former has been unable to take this step without taunting the Democrats, and especially Congressman Eaton, of

Connecticut, with shortsighted and unpatriotic action last winter.

Upon the occasion of introducing again his bill to establish a Government postal telegraph, Senator Edmunds said that he had so far modified his opinions, since his last presentation of the subject, that he was willing to embody in his plan the purchase of any existing telegraph plant at its actual value, meaning by actual value the sum that it would cost to replace it, and not the price to which watered telegraph stock may have been pushed in the market. He added that he was not willing to wait forever to hear the arguments and testimony *pro* and *con* of outside parties upon so plain a question as Government telegraphy. Of course, a reasonable time will be given for hearing objections, but it is evident that the time has come for deciding the question on broader grounds than the interests of private persons and corporations. The problem has been worked out for us in England and on the continent of Europe. There is little left to the chances of experiment. The maximum of efficiency at the minimum of price is attainable under Government control, provided the guiding principles of civil-service reform are extended to the telegraph in all its parts. Without such rules, enforced by strict legislation, the proposed change would be extremely hazardous. It is possible to establish under Government auspices an *esprit de corps* in the telegraphic service superior to anything known under corporate management. It is possible, for instance, to create a system which shall never be exposed to a strike of operators. But such *esprit de corps* can only be reached by putting the service forever beyond the reach of party politics, and by making all positions and preferments dependent solely upon merit, to be ascertained under prescribed rules. This requirement will be comparatively easy of enforcement if engrafted upon the system in the beginning, before politicians get any hold upon it. The present time is very favorable, in a political sense, for passing a suitable bill, since the Senate and House are controlled by opposite parties, and neither one can get any advantage over the other. It is likewise fortunate that we have a President upon whose good faith everybody can rely to carry out the just principles which Congress may lay down for the telegraphic service. If any Republicans hesitate to intrust the opposite party with the execution of so great a reform, they have it in their power to put any checks they please upon the President, through their control of the Senate, before whom all nominations of any importance must come for confirmation.

Among the amendments to the House rules offered on Wednesday week was one by Congressman Beach, of this State, providing that all eulogies of deceased members shall hereafter be delivered on Sundays. It is rather singular that nobody ever suggested this system before, for it would only be an official recognition of a custom which has always prevailed in many parts of the country—that of ap-

pointing "funeral obsequies" in all possible cases for Sunday. Anybody who was reared in a rural community in any Northern State will readily recall what anxiety was always shown to bring this about. To such lengths was this carried that, although considerations of convenience as well as sanitary rules suggested that burial should take place on the second or third day after death, every possible effort would be made, on the one hand, to prolong this period in case the victim had died as early in the week as Monday or Tuesday, while, on the other hand, in case he died as late in the week as Saturday, equal haste would be exhibited about the last rites, so that in either case they might be performed on Sunday. The reason was that a funeral was one of the great events in such a community, and that a thorough observance of the occasion required that it should fall upon the day when everybody was at leisure to participate. The full absurdity of the custom was only realized when, as was pretty sure to happen, the family were the more strenuous in insisting upon funeral ceremonies in the church on Sunday in proportion as the deceased was an obscure person, whose standing was such that very few people would take the trouble to pay respect to his memory if it was going to involve the loss of a working day.

Secretary Manning's special report on the collection of duties is a very able and painstaking document. Although chiefly important to dealers in foreign goods, and possessing only a secondary interest to the general reader, it throws a good deal of light on the tariff question, and enforces some broad principles which ought to arrest public attention. It is a long narrative of the struggle of the human understanding with "the existing complicated tariff law." This phrase occurs so frequently in the report that the reader is moved, when he throws it down, to consign the whole tariff to the infernal gods. The conviction is established in every candid mind that it is impossible to execute such a law so that it shall yield the results intended by it. There has long been a consensus of opinion among merchants that honest importation of certain large lines of goods is impossible under the law; that the best intentions of the customs officers, aided by the highest intelligence, are paralyzed and frustrated by the law itself. It would, perhaps, be safe to add that no machinery can be devised that will help the case, so long as the present rates of duty are retained. These duties offer so high a temptation to smuggle that the honorable merchant is driven from the field as an importer, and compelled to buy from the consignee of the foreign manufacturer.

There is a touch of humor in the plaint on page 7 that the foreigner does not avail himself of the numerous decisions of our courts showing what is the "actual market value" of goods manufactured for the American trade. These goods, it should be observed, are different from any products made for any other part of the

world—designedly so, for if the same goods were sold in Lyons, or Crefeld, or Zurich, it would be perfectly easy to learn what they were sold for. But they are not sold there at all. Not a yard is ever seen in the street, at the places of production. The foreigner is not subject to our laws. He cannot be prosecuted for perjury—if a false custom-house oath falls under that designation. We can only appeal to his feelings and his sense of rectitude to do the square thing. We offer the highest possible incentive to him and to examining officers to do the square thing by the each other and to cheat the Government. This offer is even extended, in an indirect way, to the "merchant appraiser," in cases of appeal, as, of course, he does not want to make an enemy of the man whose goods he is buying from day to day, and may easily adhere to the weight of sworn evidence, although he may know to a moral certainty that the goods cost 50 per cent. more than their invoice value. Given such a tariff and such machinery for enforcing it, no wonder that the foreign manufacturer turns a deaf ear to the lucid decisions of our courts showing him how he ought to estimate "actual market value." The remedy of specific duties for such evils is open to the serious objection that it imposes a higher rate of duty on the poor than on the rich. No farmer's wife, no servant girl, is too poor to wear silk and velvet in some form, on the bonnet, or around the throat, or waist, or as dress trimmings. Moreover, silk mixtures are infinite in variety and style, and new varieties and styles are coming out all the time. To impose an unvarying duty by the pound or yard on all goods of which silk is a component part of chief value, would be to tax the farmer's wife and the servant girl in many cases 100 per cent. where the millionaire, with his costly stuffs and laces, gets off with 25 per cent. Such a system would put a dangerous weapon in the hands of the agents of the Cobden Club.

The reenactment of the "Moietty Law" is faintly suggested by Secretary Manning in his special report on the collection of duties, as a means of executing "the existing complicated tariff act." This law, it will be remembered, went down with a crash, in the year 1874, when the fact became known that it had been made the instrument for blackmailing the firm of Phelps, Dodge & Co. in the sum of \$270,000. The utmost efforts of the best political machine ever known in the United States were put forth to save the Moietty Law, but they were unavailing. It armed the moiety-hunters with powers unheard of outside of Turkey, and it created a corruption fund of truly Oriental proportions. As soon as the light was thrown upon it an imperious public opinion demanded its repeal, and it was repealed. It ought not to be reenacted. No evils that it can cure are half as bad as itself. Better lose all the revenue that is lost for the want of it than raise a new crop of Joyces and Sanborns in the shadows of the Custom-house. The end sought to be reached by the Moietty Law—the detection of smugglers and undervaluers—can be gained much more effectively by lowering the extravagant duties which tempt men to smuggle and undervalue.

The recent advance of \$8 per ton in the price of steel rails is made possible by the

exorbitant duty of \$17 per ton. The country is full of broken-down and non-paying railroads, which are required to pay this atrocious tax to the owners of twelve or fifteen rail mills. A duty of \$17 per ton is equal to 75 per cent. ad valorem. This tax falls necessarily on the persons and property transported by railways. The renewal of trackage is one of the operating expenses of the roads, which must be paid out of the gross receipts. All shippers as well as all railway stockholders and bondholders are interested in having this tax reduced. If they possessed a reasonable measure of enlightened self interest, they would unite in demanding a reduction or repeal of this tax, and if they should make such demand they would obtain it. A few years ago the American Medical Association passed a resolution requesting the repeal of the duties on quinine. The request was complied with almost as soon as made, and with such haste that Congress forgot to repeal the duties on the raw materials of which quinine is made. The manufacturers of quinine closed their works in infinite rage, determined to show that American industry was ruined. Finding that Congress was indifferent to their ruin, they reopened them and commenced making quinine in competition with all the paupers of Europe and Asia, and have succeeded very well. The same result would follow if every cent of duty were taken off steel rails, and it would certainly be taken off if the consumers of rails would take a tithe of the pains to secure that end that the rail makers do to prevent it.

The death of Mr. Vanderbilt has been the means of giving us another dose of the old commonplaces about the vanity of riches, and about the impossibility of carrying with us out of this world any of the treasures which most contributed to our happiness while in it. The articles of the newspapers on this subject have been reinforced, too, by the sermons which the Advent missionaries have been delivering to the business men. But there is probably no triter theme. Nobody knows more about the vanity of wealth than the men who have it. They feel keenly the difficulty of keeping hold of it, as the world now is, and see illustrations of this difficulty every day in the careers of their friends and neighbors. They probably never feel a pain or ache, or receive a warning from their doctors, without thinking sorrowfully on the inevitable separation from the good things of this world which death will bring with it. They realize this, in short, so much more vividly than the poor man does, that the poor man's reminders to them that they can carry nothing with them into the undiscovered country, have a somewhat ludicrous sound.

Nobody is probably ever influenced in the smallest degree in the management of his fortune by any forgetfulness of these consequences or accompaniments of death. No preacher ever really tells him anything new on this subject. What calls for criticism in the conduct of our rich people is not any foolish fond expectation that they are going to enjoy their riches beyond the grave, or any insensibility to the fact that riches have wings, and that this

life is short and full of trouble. Nor is it the inordinate estimate they put on wealth as an instrument of social power and influence. In this, it must be honestly said, they are, at least in this part of the world, far less blameworthy than the poor. It is the poor people who make most of the fuss about great fortunes, and look on the owners of them with most curiosity and reverence. When one sees the amount of interest the press and its readers display in the doings and sayings of anybody who has over \$10,000,000, the way he is watched and chronicled and quoted, and the amount of rubbish that is published about his house, and his furniture, and his yacht, and his tastes and habits, the wonder is that our rich men are nearly as simple and unpretending as they are. The millionaires now occupy in popular curiosity, and one might almost say admiration, the place which the lecturers and orators occupied before the war, and the generals for a short period after the war. They are the heroes of the hour, the persons whom the country people are most eager to see and hear about, and whose houses they are most anxious to have shown to them when they come to New York. Our millionaires, in truth, behave very well under this worship. Jay Gould himself resists it with much good sense and moderation. It is, in short, the community which is to blame, and not the rich man, when he takes himself too seriously, and thinks himself far wiser and better informed, and abler, more important, and possessed of more rights, than he really is.

The Massachusetts Reform Club entertained Mr. Dorman B. Eaton at a dinner on Saturday, in recognition of his long, eminent, and self-sacrificing services to the cause of civil-service reform. The occasion was made remarkable by the appearance of James Russell Lowell as an outspoken and barefaced Mugwump, and of Mayor O'Brien as an out-and-out civil-service reformer, in which character, and also as a candidate for reflection, he was greeted with hearty applause. Mr. Lowell enlivened the occasion by producing evidence that Joseph Addison, as editor of the *Spectator*, was the first Mugwump who had put himself on record by calling for the union of all good men to oppose the placing of corrupt men in office.

By the death of Mrs. Newberry the city of Chicago secures the greatest endowment for a public library that any American city holds. The late Walter L. Newberry was one of the early settlers of Chicago, who "entered" a large tract of land on the north side, and had the sagacity or the inertia to hold on to a large part of it through all periods of panic as well as through all periods of speculation. He died on board a steamer between Liverpool and New York some seventeen years since, leaving a widow and two daughters. He left a will giving one half of his estate for the purposes of a public library to be situated in the north division of Chicago, provided his daughters should die without issue, but this provision of the will was not to be executed until after his wife's death. The two daughters died without issue, and now the death of the widow is announced by a cable telegram

from Paris. The portion of the estate which falls to the public library is estimated at \$2,500,000. When Mr. Newberry died there seemed to be slight chances that the city would ever get this benefaction. The two daughters, being attractive as well as rich, were much exposed to the risk of being married and becoming the mothers of families, the more especially as one provision of the Newberry will left the bulk of the estate to the daughter who should first be the mother of a male child, and should give him the name of Walter Newberry. Both daughters perished of consumption a few years after the death of the father. So Chicago now comes by her own—in part—for the advance in real estate which has made this great benefaction possible might equitably be claimed as a public dowry. Certainly Mr. Newberry did very little to earn \$5,000,000, unless we consider it earning to deny one's self the luxuries and even the comforts which wealth puts in one's reach. He was an extremely penurious man, and one of the least public-spirited of all the wealthy men upon whom the unexampled growth of Chicago has heaped great riches. But the whirligig of time has not only given Chicago the means for establishing the greatest public library in the land, but has rescued the name of Walter Newberry from oblivion and inscribed it among those of the benefactors of the human race.

The idea that champagne may serve as a commercial barometer will doubtless strike some people as odd, but experience has shown that its consumption rises or falls in close correspondence with the activity or depression of business. The American consul at Lyons, France, has been looking over the records, and finds that the demand from the United States decreased in the amount of \$1,867,459 during the year after the panic of 1873. It is therefore a sign of returning prosperity that the shipments from Lyons to this country during last October—the month when supplies for the holiday season are chiefly ordered—were valued at \$343,586, or not much short of double the \$201,589 for October, 1884. The Blaine organs, it is true, may claim that the increased shipments are really due only to the fact that American free-traders have been furnished an unusually large supply of "British gold" this year, in view of the election of a Democratic President, and that they have been expending the money in storing their own wine cellars, instead of using it for its intended purpose of bribing protectionist Congressmen. It might be hard to refute this charge if it were not that the great prohibition State of the Union is as prosperous as the champagne dealers, as shown by the remarkable increase in the deposits of the Maine savings banks during the past year recently reported. It would be easy enough to maintain that the increased imports of champagne only show that the rich are growing richer under Democratic rule at the expense of the poor; but even Mr. Blaine himself will find it hard to convince his neighbors that the poor are growing poorer since Cleveland became President, when they see that there are nearly 4,000 more depositors in the savings banks of the State to-day than there were a year ago.

A report sent last July by the Mexican Consul-General in New York to his Secretary of State, in answer to a series of questions addressed him by the latter, gives a part of the Mexican side of the question of the commercial relations between the two countries, and thus has a bearing upon the recommendation of President Cleveland in reference to the treaty of reciprocity with Mexico. Señor Navarro declares that Mexican merchants have an excellent standing in the New York market, their payments being made promptly and honorably. Asked as to what tropical and semi-tropical products ought to be made to play the largest part in Mexican exports, he mentions bananas, coconuts, lemons, oranges, tobacco, coffee, and sugar. It is his opinion that the surest impulse to the Mexican export trade with this country can be given by thorough-going reforms in the Mexican tariff, so as to place fewer obstacles in the way of importers and to facilitate reciprocal commerce. He thinks that subventions to the various steamship lines plying between Vera Cruz and the ports of the United States would accomplish little in the way of stimulating trade, and that a more urgent step, after tariff reform, is a reduction in the charges for freight, which are enormous. He complains that injustice is done to Mexican tobacco in the fact that all the finer grades reach the United States by way of Havana, and are sold as if grown in Cuba.

All the signs seem to point to the conclusion that the recent disturbances in Nuevo Leon are the first gun in the Mexican Presidential campaign of 1888. It may or may not be true, as the telegraph has asserted, that Diaz is paving the way for his father-in-law, Romero Rubio (not Robio, as commonly printed). The significant thing is that he is invading one of the strongholds of Gonzalez, and seems bent on preventing the latter's return to power. The "favorite son" in politics has played a much more conspicuous part in Mexico than with us. Each of the political chiefs has a State or two which he looks upon as his peculiar appanage. Diaz himself, like Juarez before him, has always been able to count upon the support of Oaxaca. Gonzalez, since stepping down from the Presidency, has shown himself to possess almost absolute power in Guanajuato, of which State he is now Governor, and to exert a preponderant influence in Guadalajara and in Nuevo Leon. It would appear that Diaz is now proposing to wrest the supremacy of the latter from his rival. The trouble began in the municipal elections, held early in November. The Federal troops, evidently acting on a hint from the capital, interfered in the most outrageous manner in these elections. The reason is that, under the electoral laws of Mexico, it is almost a necessity for a successful Presidential candidate to control the majority of the *ayuntamientos* of a State in order to secure its vote. Governor Sepúlveda and the State Legislature would not submit to this military interference, and refused to declare the election of the Federal candidates. The next step in the intrigue was the fomenting of a revolution in the State, in the hope that the Governor would be forced to abandon his post, so that a military rule might be estab-

lished. That is the cause of the recent situation; Sepúlveda, with the tacit aid of Gonzalez, withstanding the revolutionists, who were apparently acting with the connivance of the Federal troops.

The election of the valued London correspondent of the *Nation*, Professor James Bryce, for South Aberdeen, is a striking illustration of the usefulness of that feature of the English system which allows electoral divisions to get their representatives wherever they please, all over the kingdom. Mr. Bryce sat in the last Parliament for the Tower Hamlets, one of the London boroughs. That has been, however, cut up into several divisions by the late act, and the number of members increased, and he, we believe, although a warm friend of Ireland, came under the ban placed on all Liberals, except one or two, by Parnell. As there is a strong Irish vote in that region, this, we think, though we are not sure, compelled him to seek a constituency elsewhere, and he has been returned by one of the divisions of Aberdeenshire by a large majority over his Tory competitor. In this country, when a man, however able, gets out of favor, for any reason, with the local managers of his district, he is completely thrown out of public life, and the country loses his services probably at the very moment when they are most valuable. In England it is all but impossible for this to happen to a man of mark. There is sure to be some constituency which is proud to have him for a representative. This insures to every man who likes politics, and shows real capacity for it, the possibility of making it a career, and staying in it during his working years, in spite of occasional differences with his constituents.

That the Parnellites in the House of Commons would be a very motley body, as regards social condition, has long been evident to those who knew how complete was the breach which the land agitation had made between the bulk of the voters and the educated and well-to-do classes in Ireland. The Irish members of the House have since the Union consisted almost exclusively of land-owners, great or small, with a sprinkling of barristers, and an occasional manufacturer, brewer, or distiller. But they, even more than the English or Scotch members, were what are technically called "gentlemen." Parnell himself is a good specimen of what they used to be. The appearance in the last Parliament of men like Biggar, who is a very illiterate pork dealer, and like Henly, who was an ill-favored attorney's clerk—though he has turned out an extremely able man—was a foretaste of what was coming if the suffrage were further extended and the land agitation were successful. The present state of things—that is, the complete loss of political leadership by the educated and well-to-do classes—has been long foreseen by wise observers as likely to come about in case the British Parliament failed to satisfy Irish demands both with regard to the land problem and home rule. Grattan foretold it seventy years ago. The absorption of the gentry in the English aristocracy was certain to lead, sooner or later, to the breaking loose of the peasantry, and their appearance in the political field under the guidance of the butcher and baker and candlestick maker.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, December 9, to TUESDAY, December 15, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND's message was received throughout the country with expressions of praise and good-will from both parties.

The New York Chamber of Commerce on Thursday adopted a report heartily approving of the recommendations of the President and Secretary of the Treasury in regard to a suspension of silver coinage.

The Republican Senators held a caucus on Friday in regard to the course which they should pursue toward the President's nominations. They adjourned without agreeing, but it is probable that as a rule the Democrats appointed, where their private character is good, and their public course does not involve a taint of dishonesty, will be confirmed. Each case will be considered on its own merits. The President will be called sharply to account if it shall be discovered that in any of his appointments he has violated the principles of which he has said so much.

In the House of Representatives on Wednesday the Speaker received permission of the House to appoint the Committees on Rules, Accounts, and Enrolled Bills. Mr. Morrison (Dem., Ill.) offered a resolution, for reference to that Committee when appointed, continuing in force the rules of the Forty-eighth Congress, with certain modifications, among them being one for the distribution of the work of the Appropriation Committee among the other standing committees of the House. This Committee is still left with jurisdiction over the legislative and sundry-civil bills. The well-known Rule 21 is proposed to be amended by striking out the clause which provides that no provision in any such bill (general appropriation), or amendment thereto, changing an existing law, shall be in order, except as being germane to the subject matter of the bill, or shall retrench expenditures by the reduction of the number and salary of the officers of the United States, by the reduction of the compensation of any person paid out of the Treasury of the United States, or by the reduction of amounts of money covered by the bill. The reference of the resolution was ordered.

In the Senate on Thursday Mr. Edmunds introduced a bill for the establishment of a postal telegraph, which was referred to the Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads. Mr. Edmunds said it was the same bill that he had introduced at the last session of Congress, which went to the Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads and was reported upon by that committee so late in the session. He hoped they would now take the earliest opportunity to report on it. He wished to press it to a vote after reasonable discussion and examination.

On Monday Mr. Hoar reported favorably in the Senate the Presidential Succession Bill.

Mr. Edmunds, on Tuesday, reported favorably a bill to relieve Gen. Alexander R. Lawton, of Georgia, of his political disabilities. Mr. Edmunds said it was well known that General Lawton had last spring been appointed to an important position under the Government, but it having been understood by some that he was laboring under political disabilities, General Lawton had then, with high sensibility, withdrawn himself from the consideration of the President. The bill was passed. Mr. Edmunds introduced a bill granting a pension to Mrs. Julia D. Grant, and another granting her the franking privilege.

The fact that the nomination of Morris Thomas, of Maryland, to be Indian Inspector, has not been sent to the Senate, is interpreted by some persons as indicating that the President has decided to cancel this appointment, against which Maryland reformers have vigorously protested. The authorities are not willing to

say what the withholding of the appointment means, and all conclusions therefore are speculative.

The annual report of Attorney-General Garland shows that, during the year, 1,658 civil suits and 11,977 criminal prosecutions were terminated in the various United States courts. He discusses the plans suggested for the relief of the courts and endorses the general features of the Davis bill for the establishment of a Court of Appeals, or intermediate court, as best adapted for the purpose. That measure, however, does not, to his mind, cover the case, and he suggests a plan based on that bill, the main features of which were incorporated in the President's message to Congress with his commendation. He suggests the advisability of building jails at each place in the country where United States courts are held.

Thomas Morrow, editor and proprietor of the *Gazette* of Washington, has been arrested, charged with conspiracy in procuring the appointment of Frank Thomas as a clerk in the Agricultural Department, Thomas not performing any service for the Government, and paying his salary over to Morrow. A similar warrant was issued for General Carmen, ex-Chief Clerk of the Agricultural Department.

The dinner given to Mr. Dorman B. Eaton, in Boston, on Saturday evening was a very brilliant entertainment. Besides Mr. Eaton the speakers were Prof. James Russell Lowell, Collector Saltonstall, General Francis A. Walker, Mr. C. W. Clifford, and Mr. William Everett. Mr. Lowell closed his remarks as follows: "If we consider the enormous difficulties of Mr. Cleveland, if we consider that he is confronted with a mass of offices such as hardly exist in other countries, filled with men, many of them excellent, but a great many of whom have been put into office on account of that spoils system which we are organized to resist, but which makes of the public office a public almshouse for the incompetent—now, I ask you, gentleman, would President Cleveland—I won't say he is doing his duty to his party, for I think he is a man quite above that, who is quite aware that when he becomes President he becomes President of the United States—would he be qualified for the position unless he made a good many removals? Don't you think it would be better and wiser for the progress of civil-service reform if equality—I mean numerical equality—could be introduced into the public service before President Cleveland's term expires? I am very strongly of that opinion. I certainly never objected to my own removal. It was certainly necessary."

The Supreme Court of Ohio has decided to overrule the decision of the Hamilton County Circuit Court, and order the certificates of election issued to the Democratic Senators and Representatives. This will make the next Senate stand twenty-one Democrats to seventeen Republicans, but on joint ballot the Republicans still retain three majority, without regard to the Hamilton County delegation.

The report made by the United States Grand Jury, which has just concluded its labors at Salt Lake City, reviews and sustains the published charges that Mormon Church dignitaries contributed money to induce disorderly women to visit the Mormon capital to entrap United States officials.

A Youngstown (O.) despatch says: "The recent advance in raw materials for the manufacture of iron and the increased price for pig metal have caused activity about the idle blast furnaces in this vicinity. Every idle blast furnace near here, with one or two exceptions, has started. In Cleveland, the only ore market for this vicinity, not a ton of ore can be bought. Furnace men in this valley have for some time anticipated this move, and are stocked to last until spring."

Mayor Grace on Tuesday morning received from Chief Engineer Martin, of the East River Bridge, his annual report for the year ending

December 1, 1885. Mr. Martin goes into a very elaborate description of the working of the cable grip in use on the cars. He says further that it is the most suitable for the bridge cars of all grips now in use. The total receipts from tolls were \$618,914 55. Of this amount \$23,011 34 were from foot passengers, \$58,468 32 for vehicles, and \$537,435 09 from passengers on the railroad. The receipts this year are \$84,921 75 in excess of the amount received for the year ending December 1, 1884. The number of passengers carried last year was 8,529,840, producing a revenue of \$426,492. This year 17,023,237 passengers were carried, yielding an income of \$537,435 09. The number of foot-passengers crossing the promenade was 3,602,080, or 328,911 less than last year, and the revenue from this source shows a decrease of \$16,289 66. The amount of tolls collected on the carriage roads is also smaller by \$9,722 68 than last year. The total number of passengers crossing the bridge since its opening, May 25, 1883, is 38,418,366, divided as follows: Railroad, 26,635,377; promenade, 11,782,989. The total amount of revenue from tolls since the opening is \$1,291,680 75—from the railroad, \$1,018,042 09; from the carriage ways, \$168,817 32, and from the promenade, \$104,821 34.

The funeral services of William H. Vanderbilt were held in St. Bartholomew's Protestant Episcopal Church, in this city, on Friday morning. The body was then taken to Staten Island, where it was deposited with simple ceremonies in the receiving tomb of the Moravian Cemetery at New Dorp. When the Vanderbilt mausoleum is completed the body will rest in it.

The will of Mr. Vanderbilt was filed at noon on Saturday in the Surrogate's Chambers in the County Court-house. The will bequeaths \$10,000,000 to each of his eight children, \$5,000,000 of which in each case is in trust. In addition to this, \$2,000,000 is left to Cornelius Vanderbilt. The four sons of the dead man are made the trustees, the property left to each son being committed to the trusteeship of his three brothers. He leaves to each of his daughters the houses they live in absolutely. To his grandson William H., the son of Cornelius, he leaves \$1,000,000, and to the widow is left the house at Fifty-first Street and Fifth Avenue, his paintings, library, stables, horses, etc., and an annuity of \$200,000, together with \$500,000 which is left to her absolutely. At her death the house, picture gallery, and stables are to go to his youngest son George Vanderbilt for his life, and at his death to such son of his as he may designate by will. If he shall die leaving no son, the property is to go to the eldest son of Cornelius Vanderbilt. Sundry bequests amounting to about \$1,200,000 are left to charitable objects, and annuities ranging from \$2,000 to \$2,500 are left to distant relatives. The remainder of the fortune is divided equally between Cornelius and William K. Vanderbilt. He directs that all of the railroad stocks bequeathed to his children shall be held in bulk and administered for the best interests of all, and that none of them shall be disposed of without the consent of all concerned.

B. Gratz Brown, who was the candidate for Vice-President on the Greeley ticket in 1872, is dead.

The sudden death of Mrs. Newberry, widow of the late Walter L. Newberry, of Chicago, was reported by cable from Paris on Thursday. This releases one-half of his large estate, valued at \$5,000,000, for the purposes of a public library in Chicago.

John Langdon Sibley, who was Librarian of the Harvard College Library for twenty-one years, and has been more or less closely connected therewith for sixty years, died on Wednesday at his home in Cambridge, Mass., after an illness of some duration. Mr. Sibley was born on December 29, 1804, in the town of Union, Maine. He obtained an education in spite of his humble circumstances. He was a

student at Phillips Exeter Academy, and was graduated at Harvard in 1825. Mr. Sibley's published works are: 'Index to the Writings of George Washington,' 1837; 'A History of the Town of Union, Me.,' 1851; 'Index to the Works of John Adams,' 1853; 'Fort Pownall and Brigadier Waldo'; 'Notices of Account-Books of Treasurers of Harvard College, from 1669 to 1752'; 'Notices of the Triennial and Annual Catalogues of Harvard University, with a reprint of 1674, 1682, and 1700,' 1865; and three biographical volumes of 'Harvard Graduates,' from the foundation of the College. He also edited the American reprint of George Chalmers's 'Introduction to the History of the Colonies,' a work which was suppressed in London. Throughout his career he was noted for his benefactions to needy students. He has given about \$30,000 to Phillips Exeter Academy for that purpose.

Commodore Charles Lowndes died at his country seat near Easton, Md., on Monday, at the age of eighty-seven. He was a brother-in-law of the late Admiral Buchanan of the Confederate navy. Commodore Lowndes and Admiral Buchanan took opposite sides in the late war, and because of the relations between them Commodore Lowndes was suspected of being a Southern sympathizer. During the war he was placed upon the retired list. He was appointed a midshipman in 1818.

Gen. Robert Toombs, of Georgia, the noted ex-Confederate, Senator of the United States before the war, Secretary of State of the Confederacy, and General in the rebel army, died at his home in Washington, Georgia, on Tuesday. He was seventy-five years of age. General Toombs was to the last irreconcilable to the result of the war.

FOREIGN.

All but six seats in the British Parliament have been filled, and it is closely estimated that this body will contain the following party representatives: Liberals 334, Conservatives 250, Parnellites 86, giving the Tories and Nationalists a majority of two over the Liberals.

Mr. Gladstone has written a letter referring to the election, in which he says: "It has been a wonderful election and will prove that we have gained on the Tories since 1880, if allowance is granted us of fifteen seats lost through double candidatures and fifteen seats Mr. Parnell gave the Tories." Mr. Thomas P. O'Connor, member of Parliament-elect for the Scotland division of Liverpool, and Mr. Parnell's trusted lieutenant, in an interview, defined the Nationalist's view of home rule for Ireland as like that of the Government of Canada—the Irish members not to sit in the Imperial Parliament, and the people of Ireland not to contribute toward the expenses of the Imperial Government, nor to share in the payment of the national debt. Regarding funds to carry out the Nationalists' measures, Mr. O'Connor said the Parnellites could easily raise £100,000 in America.

It is asserted on good authority that Mr. Gladstone has a carefully prepared scheme of home rule, in which he feels the keenest interest, and is working upon it at Hawarden all the time. The details are kept a profound secret from every member of the party except three, viz.: Earls Granville, Spencer, and Rosebery. All these recently visited him in turn at Hawarden. It is said to be the dream of his life to pass this measure entire. Any such scheme, he calculates, would cost him twenty-five votes in his own party, but if the Irish support him that will not matter.

The London News is anxious that Mr. Gladstone should take office in order to prevent the Conservatives from fomenting an anti-Irish agitation to secure the support of the Whigs.

Sir Charles Dilke said on Monday that the Radicals would not obstruct, but would attempt to shape the tariff policy.

The London Standard (Cons.), of Monday morning, was outspoken for the refusal of Mr.

Parnell's demands. To acquiesce in them, it says, would be suicide; to compromise, folly.

Mr. Bradlaugh has entered into negotiations with the Liberal leaders. He proposes not to present himself at the bar of the House of Commons to take the oath of office at the opening of Parliament, provided the Liberals will introduce and support a bill allowing members-elect to affirm instead of taking the oath.

Tennyson writes that he believes disestablishment and disendowment would be a prelude to the downfall of much that is greatest and best in England. There are doubtless abuses in the Church, but they are remediable. He wishes that the politicians who look upon America as an ideal Government, would borrow her conservative restrictive provision in the fifth article of the Constitution as a safeguard to England's Constitution against ignorant and reckless theorists.

The British Cabinet had a session of two hours and a half on Monday, and decided to meet the new Parliament and to submit a programme dealing with the subject of county government in England and Ireland, English church reform, and land tenure. The Cabinet unanimously refused to receive or to make overtures for an alliance with the Parnellites. It is asserted in London that Mr. Gladstone has determined to force the fighting against the Tories at the very threshold of the new Parliament, and will move a vote of want of confidence in the Government on the first day of the session. He expects Parnellite support.

Russia has protested against Turkish intervention in Rumelia, and, in consequence of Austria's interference in Serbia, is preparing actively to support Bulgaria. It was officially announced on Friday that Serbia would abide by the decision of the Powers if compatible with her interests and dignity.

Prince Alexandria, of Bulgaria, replying to the Powers, says the Servians must evacuate Widdin. He is willing to disarm if Serbia will indemnify Bulgaria for losses sustained by the war.

It was reported from Vienna on Thursday that peace negotiations had begun in earnest on the basis of the personal union of the Bulgarians and the nomination of Prince Alexander to be Governor of Rumelia for five years.

The London Times said on Saturday morning: "The Eastern difficulty may be regarded as virtually settled. The Powers have agreed to recognize the union of the Bulgarians. A demarcation Commission has been appointed, which insures an armistice of a month, and will hardly fail to secure peace."

A military commission will set out immediately from Belgrade to mark out the armistice frontier.

A rumor is current that a Russo-Montenegrin plot existed to form a Serbian State to consist of Servia, Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Montenegro; that an assassin was hired for 40,000 rubles to kill King Milan, and that an accomplice divulged the plot.

The Porte sent a note to Italy protesting against the seizure of Massowah. Italy replied that the occupation of Massowah does not affect the sovereignty of the Sultan.

A great rebel army is forming in the Sudan, and the British Government has decided to reoccupy Dongola. A new expedition will be sent to Egypt immediately.

It is now clear that the situation in Egypt is serious enough to compel General Stephenson to leave hastily for the front. The garrison at Koyeh appears to be cut off and besieged. The British force there consists of 600 Highlanders, Hussars, and Royal Engineers, and one battalion of Egyptians. The little steamer Lotus, while with her gun shelling the enemy, has already been hit several times. Koyeh is strongly fortified, but is 100 miles south of

Wady Halfa, with seven small cataracts between. There are 14,000 British troops in Egypt, but three fresh regiments have been ordered to reinforce them, and are hurrying to the front.

The belief is increasing in Calcutta that the British Government does not intend to annex Burmah.

General de Courcy has been recalled from Anam. General Négrier succeeds in command of the French troops. General de Courcy is accused of having in his reports magnified the difficulty of the situation in Anam, and of imprudently meddling with the Anamite authorities, thereby exciting the natives to the verge of a general revolt.

The Pope has protested to the French Government against the action of M. Goblet, Minister of Public Instruction, in stopping the stipends of thirty-nine priests for alleged intervention in recent elections for members of the Chamber of Deputies. The Pope claims that the suspension of religious stipends is an infringement on the provisions of the Concordat.

The funeral services over the body of the late King Alfonso took place in Madrid on Saturday at the Church of St. Francis the Great. The large edifice was crowded with distinguished people. All the sovereigns of Europe were represented. The members of the diplomatic corps were also present. The civil and military pageant was an imposing spectacle, and was witnessed by an immense crowd.

Don Carlos, of Spain, announces that the reports referring to the marriage of his son to the Infanta Mercedes are premature. Don Carlos declares that he will never seek to benefit his cause by an alliance which would be regarded as tantamount to renouncing his rights, or by recognizing another's claim to the throne.

Ferdinand, father of the King of Portugal and at one time regent of that country, died on Tuesday at the age of sixty-nine.

M. Adolf Deucher, at present Vice-President of Switzerland, has been elected President for the year 1886. He is a Radical.

The German Bundesrath has unanimously approved the bill for the construction of the projected ship canal between the Baltic, the Elbe, and the North Sea. It has also approved a treaty of commerce with San Domingo.

A son of Meissonier, the celebrated French painter, was terribly bitten on Sunday by a rabid mastiff in his father's garden. The victim was immediately sent to Pasteur for treatment. The latter declares that the patient's recovery is certain.

General Reyes, commanding the Mexican Federal troops at Monterey, received orders from the City of Mexico on Thursday to depose Acting Governor Sepúlveda, and place the State of Nuevo Leon under martial law. Governor Sepúlveda refused to vacate his office. General Reyes undertook to execute the order during the night at the head of 200 soldiers, but was repulsed by Governor Sepúlveda with the loss of three soldiers killed and several wounded. The Governor, however, concluded to surrender on Friday afternoon, and in notifying General Reyes that he would do so was taken prisoner and placed in the military prison. General Reyes then publicly proclaimed martial law over the State and assumed the military Governorship, to which he had been appointed by the National Senate at the City of Mexico.

Quiet has been restored at Monterey, Mexico, but there is an undercurrent of dissatisfaction with the Military Government.

General Ballestares has been appointed Military Governor of the State of Nuevo Leon. Ex-Governor Sepúlveda has been released from imprisonment. Business in Monterey is already recovering.

Riel was buried at St. Boniface on Saturday. About 700 half-breeds were present.

THE KEILEY CORRESPONDENCE.

WE confess to having read the Keiley correspondence, which has just been laid before Congress, with a good deal of bewilderment. Mr. Bayard apparently considers the function of representing the United States abroad as an office in the gift of a foreign government, to which our Government is entitled to nominate whom it pleases; and holds that the foreign Government has no right to refuse to confirm the appointment, unless the nominee is disqualified under the Constitution of the United States. It is true he did not take this ground in the beginning, for he recognized "the full and independent right of the King of Italy to decide the question of the personal acceptability to him of an envoy," but he abandoned it as soon as Italy had rejected Mr. Keiley. When Mr. Bayard came to try to send him to Vienna, and the Austrian Government refused to receive him, he took the position that the Emperor was bound to receive him because the reasons he gave for rejecting him were not recognized as good ones by the laws of the United States and American public opinion. Throughout the remainder of the discussion Mr. Bayard's contention was that the Emperor had not complete discretion in the matter; that if he rejected Keiley, it must be for reasons which Americans would approve.

He therefore examines the reasons, and finds the principal one, Mrs. Keiley's religious faith, to be one which Americans cannot approve, and, therefore, concludes (apparently) that Mr. Keiley had a right to go to Vienna whether the Austrian Government wanted him or not, and that in refusing to receive him a deep and grievous wrong of some kind had been inflicted not only on Mr. Keiley, but on the American people. He appears, indeed, to be of opinion that Count Kálnoky ought to have examined the United States Constitution before acting in the matter, as he would there have found that "no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust," and that "Congress shall make no law respecting the establishment of religion or prohibiting the free exercise thereof."

Now, on the theory which Mr. Bayard has himself accepted, and which all civilized governments have always acted on, this discussion is, to put it mildly, absolutely irrelevant. The Constitution and laws of the United States and the opinions of the American people of course govern the qualifications of all officers who are to exercise their functions on American soil or in American ships; but they do not and cannot govern the qualifications of officers who are to exercise their functions in the territory of other nations. We cannot, and never could, send any kind of men we pleased to be consuls or ministers in foreign countries. The Emperor of Austria is not bound to grant the enormous social privileges and legal immunities with which international usage surrounds diplomatic representatives in his own capital, to anybody whom we choose to pick out for the purpose. The American Mission is not an office in his gift which he is obliged to bestow as we direct. It is well settled that a foreign representative

must be a man with whom the Government to which he is accredited will find it agreeable to transact business—that is, whose character, attainments, and manners will make official intercourse with him easy and pleasant. It is nothing to the purpose that he would make a good member of Congress or collector of internal revenue, or that the American people do not object to his religion, or his culture, or his opinions, or his clothes. It is not with the American people he has in this case to do, but with foreigners who are not subject to American laws, nor familiar with American usages, nor responsible to American opinion.

This is not the whole of the matter, however. In all European capitals the foreign Ministers form, *ex-officio* as it were, part of the best society of the place. Everybody connected with the Government, from the sovereign down, is expected to invite them to balls, dinners, and receptions, on a footing of equality with the highest class in that community. If these civilities were not offered in any particular case, it would be considered, and justly considered, a slight to the country which the Minister represented, as well as to him personally. In European capitals, too, and in Vienna above all capitals, this official society has prejudices and requirements and notions of various sorts, which we here either know nothing of or consider absurd, but which there are very important and have, in fact, for social purposes the force of fundamental rules. Therefore, into the question of the acceptability of a Minister at a foreign court there always enters the question whether there is anything about him and his wife, in the matter of opinions, antecedents, occupation, creed, or manners, which will prevent their being cordially received on a footing of perfect equality with the other ladies and gentlemen of the court circle. To allow any man, and especially a married man, therefore, to come to a capital in a diplomatic capacity, who would not be cordially received or whom anything in his history or qualities would expose to social rebuffs, would, on the part of any civilized government, be a most unfriendly act. When the Foreign Minister of any government has reason to believe that an envoy is being sent to him whose family the society of the place will not tolerate, it is not simply his right but his duty to do what Count Kálnoky did in this case—refuse to receive him.

Count Kálnoky, however, managed the matter badly. He ought not to have given any reasons for refusing Keiley. Above all, he ought not to have said one word about Mrs. Keiley. The way in which this lady's name has been bandied about in the matter, and made notorious in two hemispheres, as that of the victim of a social snub, is the most deplorable feature of the trouble. Mr. Bayard is one of the last men on the continent to whom we should think of giving lessons as to what a gentleman should do in any case calling for a gentleman's tact and discretion, but we must express surprise that he did not, as soon as he got the smallest hint from the Austrian Government that the objections to Mr. Keiley were social in their nature, drop the mat-

ter promptly, if only for Mr. and Mrs. Keiley's sake. He ought not to have said one word more about it except to Mr. Keiley. When A asks B for an invitation for C to B's house, and is refused it on the ground that B does not care for C's acquaintance, he does not demand B's reasons, or denounce him in the newspapers for his intolerance or for not liking Mrs. C's manners.

To see the inherent absurdity of our position one has only to ask one's self what the Emperor of Austria would have had to do, if he had surrendered to Mr. Bayard's reasoning. Suppose Mr. and Mrs. Keiley to have gone to Vienna. They would not have been received in the best Austrian society, on account of Mrs. Keiley's faith. If Count Kálnoky had asked them to official dinners or balls, other people would have refused to meet them or ignored their presence. The same thing would have happened at Court. Every day's social gossip would have had a tale of humiliation and annoyance inflicted on the Keileys. Their position, in short, would have been intolerable to self-respecting people. The Emperor's or Count Kálnoky's indignation would have been roused, let us suppose, by this exhibition of meanness and intolerance. Now fancy either of them going about to people who did not invite the Keileys, or refused to call on them or notice them in public places, and asking them whether they were aware that the Constitution of the United States forbids the imposition of religious tests, or the establishment of religion, and that the President and Congress can make no inquiry into the religious belief of any official; that "religious liberty is the chief cornerstone of the American system of government, and provisions for its security are embedded in the written charter and interwoven in the moral fabric of its laws; that anything that tends to invade a right so essential and sacred must be carefully guarded against, and that Americans, ever mindful of the sufferings and sacrifices necessary to obtain it, will never consent to its impairment for any reason or under any pretext whatsoever; that in harmony with this essential law is the almost equally potential unwritten law of American society that awards respect and delicate consideration to the women of the United States, and exacts deference in the treatment at home and abroad of the mothers, wives, and daughters of the republic." Suppose these words of Mr. Bayard's to have been read to people who did not ask the Keileys to dinner; would not the laughter have been Homeric?

THE NAVY PROBLEM.

WE have long heard that our navy does not possess a single ship which could fight a first-class modern iron-clad, that the bureau system is extravagant and inefficient, that we have nothing of value to show for the \$75,000,000 expended on our navy since 1868, and that it is time something was done. The difficulty has been that neither Congress nor the Department had any definite idea what should be done, and so each Congress and each Secretary has bequeathed the problem to his successors. Indeed, one of the great defects of the bureau

system has been that the head of the Department could not exert any effective control over the working of his eight independent and yet connected and interacting bureaus. To this, and perhaps on account of this, must be added that the Navy Department is the one which the head has least been expected to control.

Mr. Whitney is entitled to the credit of not only placing the weakness of his department in a clearer light than his predecessors have done, but of showing a better grasp of the situation. The idea with which nearly every man takes high office is that he has only to sit at his desk and cull out the best from the advice tendered him in order to have all the guidance he requires in the performance of his duties. The truth is, that, in the situation in which Secretary Whitney is now placed, the best men and the best advice can be got only by diligent search on his part; and as we read his report, we fancy that he has some faint perception of this truth. The remedy he proposes would hardly have been found without looking for it. Instead of eight bureaus, each with its independent administrative machinery, he would divide the work of the department into three branches, whose operations could not conflict at any point. First, he would have a Department of Finance and Accounts, to be charged with all the contracts, and to do all the purchasing, auditing, and accounting. Under the present system every bureau advertises separately for proposals, and makes its own independent purchases.

Next would come the Department of Material and Construction, which would have entire charge of the building and repair of the ship, and of her care when not in commission. This branch would do most of the work now divided between the four bureaus of construction, engineering, ordnance, and equipment. The third branch would be that of the fleet and personnel. It would take charge of the ship from the time when the second branch had fitted for service, supply her with officers and men, and direct her movements.

This plan has the appearance of being carefully worked out, and well adapted to the requirements of the situation so far as mere organization is concerned. The real difficulties will begin when it is put into a sufficiently definite form for actual practice. No amount of legislation or administration will avail anything unless the proper material is at hand. It is impossible to read the Secretary's description of the process by which the British Government secures the best engines, without seeing that the condition to which our mercantile marine has been reduced by bad legislation is largely the cause of the failure in our naval management. England gets her engines, not by commissioning officers to design them, but by utilizing the talents of her private engine builders. So far as we are behind her in the number and experience of our engine builders, so far are we at a disadvantage in putting her method into practice.

The men who attempt to inaugurate any radical improvement in our system of naval administration will be hampered by a cause of which it would be hardly appropriate to take official notice. Our navy has been until recently, and we believe still is, organized into two hos-

tile camps, each with its machinery for political action. One camp is that of the line—the navy proper, from ensign to admiral; the other that of the staff, or civil branch—surgeons, paymasters, and engineers. The object of each is to influence legislative and executive action in such way as to gain for itself every possible advantage over the other. Each holds its secret meetings, levies assessments, and employs counsel. The moral influence which these associations exert by spurring their members to promote their class interests is perhaps yet more potent than their action as a body. That the influence of such associations is bad in the extreme, no one acquainted with political machinery in Washington need be told. The reason why their influence enters into the question of administrative reform is that no scheme for such reform is possible without seriously affecting the interests of one or both parties, and it will be difficult, if not impossible, to get any measure through Congress which either side opposes. Efforts have been made by the heads of both the War and Navy Departments to get rid of this disturbing element by prohibiting officers from attempting to influence legislation. It is very suggestive that while the War Department has been fairly successful in this, the Navy Department never has; and naval officers of rank have even gone so far as to deny the right of the Secretary to impose any such restrictions on their action.

The best feature of the report is the clear view of the requirements of naval education. The first requisite to the possession of a modern navy is the skill to construct it, and this is just what our system of education fails to give us. A greater backward step was never taken than when Congress, on the motion of Mr. Robeson, abolished the separate class of cadet engineers at the Naval Academy, and prescribed the same course of study to all. We must now go in the other direction, and train men to be constructing engineers from the beginning.

NATURALIZATION AND EXPATRIATION.

THE President's message contains several references to the position of our naturalized citizens abroad, and recommends certain reforms in our laws concerning the acquisition and loss of citizenship. Fifteen years ago Executive utterances on these topics would have needed no commentary. The "right of expatriation," which our Government had for seventy years been striving to establish, had then recently obtained international recognition by a series of treaties with the German and Scandinavian States of the Continent and with Great Britain. The details of the contest and the questions of municipal and international law involved were at that time fresh in everybody's memory. But the main points in dispute were so satisfactorily settled by the treaties concluded in 1868 and the years immediately following, and the operation of these treaties has been, on the whole, so smooth and noiseless, that there has been little occasion of late years to discuss these once so hotly mooted questions.

The President reminds Congress that Turkey does not yet recognize the right of expatriation—i. e., does not attach to naturalization acquired in a foreign country the effect of ex-

tinguishing the allegiance of the Ottoman subject. He reiterates the declaration, familiar in Presidential messages from 1860 to 1870, that "the United States must hold, in their intercourse with every Power, that the status of their citizens is to be respected." It is to be hoped that Minister Cox will have better success with the Porte than his predecessors. It is also to be hoped that our representatives in Russia and Switzerland will be instructed to press for a solution of this question. Russia denies absolutely the right of the native Russian to expatriate himself; and although the Swiss law recognizes foreign naturalization as one of the conditions of expatriation, it does not make expatriation the necessary result of such naturalization. The local authorities of the abandoned domicile must declare that they have no objection to the change of nationality.

In reference to the position of our naturalized citizens in Germany, the President makes a statement not technically accurate. He calls attention to "an apparent tendency, on the part of the Imperial Government, to extend the scope of the residential restrictions to which returning naturalized citizens of German origin are asserted to be liable under the laws of the Empire." There are no "residential restrictions" to which expatriated Germans, returning to Germany, are "liable under the laws of the Empire," except such restrictions as are imposed upon all aliens, whether of German origin or not. German law permits the Government to expel aliens whose presence is regarded as undesirable. Germans who have been naturalized in America are, by the Bancroft treaties, aliens, and therefore subject to such expulsion. The right of every State to expel aliens is indubitable. The United States has always exercised this right in the case of criminals and paupers shipped here from Europe, and the present Administration has directed that it be exercised in the case of all Chinese laborers immigrating by way of Canada. International comity gives the State whose citizen is expelled from the territory of a friendly Power the right to ask for explanation. International law gives to no State the right to demand that its citizens be permitted to reside in the territory of another State. Such a right must be sought in the express provisions of a treaty.

This brings us to the real question, which the President's statement tends to obscure. The Bancroft treaties are sometimes imagined to give to our naturalized citizens of German origin the right to return to Germany and to dwell there unmolested for the space of two years. In point of fact, those treaties contain no such provision, express or implied. It is stipulated that the German who resides in the United States for five years and obtains our naturalization, shall be regarded by the German Government as an American. But if he returns to Germany and takes up his residence there without the intention of returning to the United States, he shall be deemed to have renounced his American naturalization. The absence of any intention to return to America may be assumed to exist if he resides in Germany uninterruptedly for two years. It is this last clause which has been assumed to give the German

naturalized in America the right to reside in Germany for two years. It obviously does nothing of the kind. It is simply said that such a person, having actually resided in Germany for two years, is estopped from claiming American citizenship and American protection. The treaties give him no right to reside there two years, or two months, or two days, without the consent of the Government.

The Imperial Foreign Office has uniformly insisted upon this interpretation. In 1878 Mr. Julius Bäumer, a naturalized citizen of the United States, was expelled from Germany four months after his return; and Mr. Phillips-born defended the action of his Government on the ground that the existing treaties did not affect the right of expulsion. Our Government appears not to have questioned the strict legality of the German position, but urged that any general employment of the right of expulsion would be a breach of comity and a violation of the spirit of the Bancroft treaties.

Fraudulent naturalization in the United States has been a source of great annoyance to our Government in its diplomatic relations; and the recommendations of the President on this point deserve serious consideration. He calls attention to the fact that our legislation contains no "statutory means for renouncing citizenship by an American citizen, native-born or naturalized." Whether citizens of the United States had the "right of expatriation" was a question hotly discussed a quarter of a century ago. Eminent Justices of the Supreme Court, among them Story, denied it, *obiter*; Kent also denied it. Attorney-General Cushing, on the other hand, affirmed it in an elaborate opinion. But this was clearly an opinion made to order. Foreign governments had been asking awkward questions about the state of our law, and the State Department needed an answer. The Attorney-General furnished the answer needed. But whatever the law was before 1868, it is commonly supposed that since that time the right of expatriation has been firmly established. The Act of July 27, 1868, declares that expatriation is a "natural and inherent right," and that any denial of this right is "inconsistent with the fundamental principles of this Government." In fact, this law did not change the situation in the least. In order that a person may expatriate himself, it must be in his power to do something in consequence of which the law will divest him of his citizenship. As long as the law does not specify to what acts it will attach this result, it is impossible to say whether any act will or will not be adequate.

Only one attempt has been made since 1868 to reform our law in this respect; and it is very fortunate that the attempt failed. A bill was introduced into Congress to deprive of citizenship any American who should reside abroad two years, unless he made declaration, during that period, before a minister or consul of the United States, of his intention to return. This bill was obviously suggested by the two-years' clause of the Bancroft treaties. But there is a wide difference between a naturalized citizen of the United States who returns to his native country and lives there two years, and a native American who passes two years abroad in study or travel; and the legislator has no right to presume that the intention to return is

equally absent in both cases. It is to be hoped that this crude proposition will not be revived. Such a solution of the question is objectionable from the international as well as the national standpoint. No country in the world makes the foreign-born resident a citizen by virtue of two years' residence. Such a bill as that described would therefore create *heimathlose*—men without a country. The true solution, from the international standpoint, is to attach the result of expatriation to all acts, and to those acts only, by which the American citizen gains a new nationality. Such acts are the acquisition of a foreign naturalization and the marriage of an American woman to a foreigner.

Further, in case of double nationality existing from birth, Congress should provide for a renunciation of American citizenship. Such a double nationality exists—

1. In the case of the children of alien parents born within the jurisdiction of the United States.

2. In the case of children of American parents born abroad, when the State in whose territory they are born regards them as its citizens.

In both classes of cases the English Act of 1870 provides for a "declaration of alienage" to be made by the *sujet mixte* on reaching majority.

VOTING HABITS, PAST AND PRESENT.

AN immense amount of matter has been published in partisan newspapers of late years about the ratio of votes cast in Presidential elections to possible voters in different parts of the Union. The bulk of it has been absolutely worthless stuff, since it was only a reckless juggling with figures to make them sustain certain theories. The most common way has been to declare that the returns from certain Southern States in 1880 and 1884 showed that Republicans were generally kept from voting, and that the elections were consequently unfair, because the proportion of votes to adult males reported by the census was very small, while in certain selected Northern States it was very large. This left quite out of view the fact that in these Northern States there had been a close contest between the two parties, which naturally brought voters generally to the polls, while in the Southern States cited the Republicans had made no real fight, and as a result many of the other party did not take the trouble to cast their ballots—precisely as has happened more than once, *mutatis mutandis*, at the North.

The public is naturally weary of such profitless twisting of election returns and census figures. But there is a broad and inviting field for inquiry in the rather dreary-looking wastes of political almanacs and census reports, which has never been cultivated. Do men nowadays vote as generally as their fathers did? What effect has the infusion during the past generation of a vast foreign element produced upon our voting habits? Has the average citizen become more or less conscientious about discharging the first duty of citizenship? How has the wonderful growth of the nation affected the operation of that basic principle upon which it was established? These are questions which must often suggest themselves to

any thoughtful observer of this great experiment in self-government. Fortunately, it is possible to answer them with scientific accuracy, and, more fortunately still, the answers are in the highest degree reassuring.

Once in twenty years the national census has been taken in the same year that a President was elected, and thus a basis has been furnished for determining the ratio of votes to voting population. In 1800 and again in 1820 there was no popular vote in many of the States, Presidential electors being chosen by the legislatures, but by 1840 all of the States except South Carolina had adopted the system of a popular election. There are therefore three Presidential contests, covering a period of forty years, as to which diligent scrutiny will reveal the percentage of men in each State who went to the polls. The revolution in the suffrage qualifications in the old slave States since the ante-bellum period excludes them from consideration, while several large States in the West were still Territories in 1840. But New England, the Middle States except Delaware, and Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois in the West, make a round dozen of States which furnish a fair basis for comparison, containing as they do nearly half the whole population of the country.

To discover how large a proportion of men voted in each contest, one must first find the number of males above the age of twenty-one reported by the census, in any State, then get the total vote of the State from a political almanac, and divide the latter by the former. When a preliminary State election called out a larger vote than was cast for President later in the year, as, for example, in Pennsylvania in October, 1860, and in Maine in September, 1880, the vote for State officers is to be taken. The following table shows the number out of every thousand males above the age of twenty-one who voted in each State at the three elections:

	1840	1860	1880
Maine.....	832	763	789
New Hampshire.....	874	808	821
Vermont.....	751	375	729
Massachusetts.....	663	517	562
Rhode Island.....	338	316	380
Connecticut.....	766	714	749
New York.....	780	682	785
New Jersey.....	813	752	818
Pennsylvania.....	784	732	799
Ohio.....	854	823	877
Indiana.....	867	903	944
Illinois.....	857	806	781

The first thing which strikes the eye is the uniformity with which the ratio of voters fell off between 1840 and 1860, despite the fact that the struggle which ended in Lincoln's election was as exciting as that which placed Harrison for a month in the White House. Rhode Island is the solitary exception to the rule in the East, and the change in that State was due to special local causes—for one thing, the abolition soon after the election in 1840 of the old property qualification of a \$134 freehold, so far as native-born citizens were concerned; and for another, the hot fight which brought Sprague to the front in 1860. Indiana is the only other State which gained, and this is easily explicable on the ground that it was already by that time coming to be recognized as one of the close "pivotal States," upon which the managers of both parties concentrated their efforts.

Local reasons might account for a smaller proportional vote in some cases. It is easy,

for example, to see why Vermont voters may have felt more interest in the election of 1840, when the Democrats of the State had been able to make a good showing in 1836, than in 1860, when the political sentiment had become overwhelmingly Republican. But there must have been some general cause to produce so general a result. That cause was undoubtedly the great tide of foreign immigration which set in during this period, and which repeatedly landed on our shores in a single year more than half as many people as had come during the whole decade between 1830 and 1840. A considerable percentage of these newcomers were very slow about becoming naturalized, and consequently were disqualified from voting in 1860. The census of 1840 did not show the nativity of our population, but the best authorities place the whole number of foreign-born inhabitants in the country that year at only 860,000, while by 1860 it had mounted to 4,138,697. The unnaturalized element was consequently but trifling in 1840 as compared with 1860. The proportion of foreign-born to every thousand people in each of the States in 1860 and 1880 was as follows:

	1860	1880
Maine.....	59	91
New Hampshire.....	64	133
Vermont.....	104	123
Massachusetts.....	211	249
Rhode Island.....	214	268
Connecticut.....	175	209
New York.....	258	238
New Jersey.....	183	196
Pennsylvania.....	148	137
Ohio.....	140	123
Indiana.....	88	73
Illinois.....	189	189

It will be seen that the falling off in the vote between 1840 and 1860 is usually most marked in the States where the foreigners settled in largest numbers, as New York and Massachusetts; the educational test and the poll-tax in the latter State being especially serious obstacles in their way to the ballot-box. The phenomenal smallness of the foreign element in Indiana, while immigrants not only settled in large numbers in Ohio but pressed past her in still larger numbers into Illinois—an anomaly which continues to the present day—was one thing which rendered it possible for her to gain in fulness of vote while her next neighbors on both sides lost.

It is worth noting here, by the way, that the reason why the Western States cast a larger proportional vote than the Eastern ones, especially in the earliest contest, is to be found in the census statistics of age. The new States were, of course, chiefly settled by vigorous men in the prime of life, many of whom came from New England, while the weak, the old, and the infirm seldom became pioneers. Of two communities, other things being equal, the larger vote will be cast by the one which has the greater proportion of active men—that is to say, men who are between twenty-one and fifty years of age. Compare Vermont, the greatest colonizing State of the Union, with Illinois, and it will be found that in the New England State only 74 per cent. of the adult males in 1840 were between twenty-one and fifty, and that 6 per cent. had passed the age of seventy, while in Illinois 87 per cent. of all were between twenty-one and fifty, and only a trifle over 1 per cent. had reached seventy. As New Englanders continue to emigrate to the West, the same principle still holds, though

with diminished force as the nearer Western States themselves grow old.

The most striking lesson of these tables is found by comparing the figures for 1860 and 1880. We have seen that the proportion of men who voted sank almost everywhere between 1840 and 1860, the average falling off in the dozen States being from 791 to 732 per 1,000. We have seen that this falling off coincided with and was largely due to the element of immigration, the number of foreigners having risen from a trifling percentage in 1840 to an average of 175 out of every 1,000 people in these States in 1860. The first effect of immigration was thus to diminish the proportion of men who participated in the government of the country. Immigrants continued to pour in upon us in still larger floods after 1860. Despite the growth of native population, foreigners came in such numbers that the census of 1880 showed a greater percentage of foreign-born in most of these States than in their smaller populations of twenty years before, and the average proportion of foreigners to all the people in the whole dozen States was almost identical in the two eras—175 out of 1,000 in 1860 and 173 out of 1,000 in 1880. Moreover, there had grown up to their majority during this period hundreds of thousands of men who were the children of such immigrants, so that the percentage of adult males who were either born abroad themselves, or were the sons of foreign-born parents, was far larger in 1880 than in 1860.

But while the ratio of foreign-born has held constant, and the element which was purely native in descent has markedly decreased, the first table given above shows that the vote was relatively fuller in 1880 than in 1860 for every State but two—Illinois and Rhode Island. The falling off in Illinois was small, and is readily accounted for when one reflects that in 1860 the State was a hotly contested battle-ground between the followers of Lincoln and Douglass, while in 1880 it was certain from the opening of the campaign that it would go for Garfield. The larger falling off in Rhode Island is also due in part to the fact that her politics had become so one-sided that the Republicans no longer have a close fight, while the retention of the property qualification for the foreign-born keeps a larger number from voting as the proportion of foreigners increases. Rhode Island and Illinois aside, every State has gained, and some of them remarkably, as New York from 682 to 785 votes per 1,000. For the whole number the ratio has risen from 732 to 789 per 1,000. After twenty years, during which the infusion of the foreign strain in our national blood became decidedly stronger, the proportion of men who discharged the prime duty of citizenship became sensibly larger.

Nor is this all. Not only have we made a distinct gain upon 1860, but we have practically regained the position held in 1840. In truth, if Massachusetts, with her poll-tax and educational test, and Rhode Island, with her property qualification, be left out of the account, we have improved upon 1840. For the twelve States the proportion of voters was 791 in 1840, and 789 in 1880, while with Massachusetts and Rhode Island out, the figures for the rest are 809 in 1840, and 816 in 1880. During the five years before the last census was taken, more than a million and a quarter of

foreigners entered the country, who were barred from naturalization before the succeeding Presidential election by the five-year clause of the law, while in 1840 this element was very small. In other words, of the men who had the right to vote, a decidedly larger percentage went to the polls in 1880 than in 1840. This result, moreover, was brought about, not only in the face of a vast foreign immigration, but also in spite of the fact that the election of 1840 was a much more exciting affair in most of the States than that of 1880. In Pennsylvania, for example, then an "October State," for whose verdict the whole country waited, it was "nip and tuck" between the Whigs and the Democrats from the start in 1840, and Harrison only won by 349 votes in more than 288,000, while in 1880 it was a foregone conclusion that Garfield would carry the State; yet 799 Pennsylvanians went to the polls in 1880 for every 784 in 1840. In like manner, Vermont, although for a quarter of a century it had always gone Republican by two or three to one, turned out to the polls almost as generally in 1880 as when the Democrats made a respectable sort of fight in 1840, and this, too, despite a considerable incoming meanwhile of French Canadians and other foreigners who do not become naturalized. Such facts as these show that the common impression that the men of to-day are less conscientious about voting than the men of the last generation is a misconception. On the contrary, as the country grows older and its larger population becomes more diversified in its character, the American citizen is more faithful to the prime duty of citizenship than when our population was only a third as numerous and was remarkably homogeneous in its nature. No more significant revelation as to the tendencies of our governmental system could be made.

SALISBURY GLADSTONE AND FARNELL.

THE political situation in England is now clearly defined, and it leaves the Tories and Parnellites together in a majority of two over the Liberals. A more correct way of putting it would be, however, to say that it leaves the Liberals three short of a majority over the Tories and Parnellites combined. The Tories have no chance of any steady support from the Parnellites, without purchasing it by concessions which would cause the disappearance of the latter from the House of Commons altogether.

But even if Salisbury were sure of their support, they do not give him a working majority. A minister needs not only two votes to spare, but about fifty to give him proper control of the House of Commons. This used to be the rule when parties were far better disciplined than they are now. There has to be margin enough in favor of the Government to provide for absences from sickness, laziness, business engagements, and personal discontent, as well as for positive desertion on political grounds. In the coming House, with its large body of new members—nearly one half—and its numerous small cross currents of feeling and opinion, this margin will doubtless have to be larger. So that, although it is open to Salisbury to treat the failure of the Liberals to get a clear majority as a reason for not resigning before the House meets, according to

the practice of late years, it is not open to him to undertake to carry on the Government without some assurance of support from Parnell, or without some arrangement with the Liberals which will enable him to dispense with Parnell's support.

In like manner Mr. Gladstone cannot undertake to carry on the Government without coming to terms either with Parnell or with some section of the Tories. But of the two Gladstone is in much the better position, because his own English, Scotch, and Welsh force is quite sufficient, if he can get Parnell out of the way, to carry on the Government, while if Salisbury were to get Parnell out of the way, he would be nowhere. He is, in short, truly between the devil and the deep sea. The chance of winning over enough Whigs to get him out of his scrape is said to be very small. Twenty at the outside is the number spoken of as at all likely at this crisis, when the country is apparently going Radical with a rush, to risk their political future by going over to the Tories.

The first business before both sides, therefore, as everybody now recognizes, is to settle with Parnell. Until this is done, Parliamentary government in England is paralyzed in a way for which there is no cure but the revolutionary expulsion of his followers from the House. Parnell's estimate of the force with which he would appear in the new Parliament has proved strictly correct. He said he should have eighty-five members from Ireland. He has this exactly, plus one from England by the capture by an Irishman of an English constituency. He has expelled the Liberals from every Irish seat, and has carried every seat in the island, except seventeen, these being in Ulster, and he has carried nearly half the Ulster seats. For the first time since the Union, and, in fact, for the first time in the history of the country, the Irish people are fully represented in the Legislature. Parnell can, therefore, speak for them with an authority which no other man has ever had. He has been taunted a good deal hitherto with refusing to produce a plan for the settlement of the Irish question, but he has refused to do so on the very good ground that any plan he produced would have been received with shouts of abuse and ridicule, which would have been justified on two grounds—one, that it was wildly impracticable; the other, that he was not properly authorized to negotiate it. Both these difficulties have probably now disappeared. His terms will be seriously discussed, whether objectionable or not, and he will be treated as the authorized agent of Ireland in the negotiations.

Probably neither Gladstone nor Salisbury will wish to say anything until they hear from him, and neither will wish to offer anything until he knows what the other will offer. Their bargaining powers will be put to a very severe test. Each will shrink from having it said on the English stump that he gave Parnell better terms than his opponent would have done, or better than Parnell would, with longer delay, have accepted. But their attitude respectively toward Parnell will really be very different, and Parnell is too shrewd not to know it. Salisbury and all his immediate followers hate the Irish and wish they were sunk in the sea, and sympathize keenly with the landlords, whom they look on as victims of spoliation. They

never, if they could have helped it, would have made the tenants the slightest concession, and would not concede home rule to Parnell if its concession did not seem necessary to the retention of power, and power is to them now, to a greater degree than ever before in the history of the party, money. In fact, to put the matter plainly, they and their friends are very hard up—for they, or their fathers and brothers, belong mainly to the impoverished landed interest—and the salaries of the offices are very important to them. If they let go there is no knowing when they will ever touch public money again.

Gladstone and the Liberals, on the other hand, though they blundered egregiously in their treatment of the Land League agitation, have a real sympathy with the Irish people, and Gladstone has undoubtedly a strong ambition to settle the Irish question forever before he quits the stage. Parnell certainly knows this very well also, and is doubtless desirous to live on friendly terms with the rising English democracy. Doubtless, too, he feels that his triumph to-day is a sufficient punishment for the brutality of Forster and the too great goodness and purity of Earl Spencer, and that he can now afford to be magnanimous. There is, therefore, a much better chance of his making terms with Gladstone than with Salisbury.

In considering what those terms will be, we may remark that nearly all the published objections of the Liberals to a local legislature in Ireland have been drawn from the probability that such a legislature would abuse its powers or seek to transcend them. We have seen very little said, except by half-crazed anti-Irish zealots, against giving an Irish legislature such powers as are exercised by that of an American State, if it were sure to claim no others, and to refrain from using these in a spirit hostile to the imperial Government, so that we should not be surprised to hear that Parnell's main or only difficulty, in the long run, lay in satisfying the British public that he was not aiming at the establishment of machinery for the humiliation and confusion of England. This difficulty it will probably be every year now easier for him to overcome, owing to the improvement in the temper of both sides.

RENAN'S NEW DRAMA.—II.

PARIS, November 28, 1885.

I SAID that I would return to the "Prêtre de Nemi," and chiefly to the Preface which Renan has found it necessary to write for his "philosophical drama." I read the drama first, as I wished to form an opinion directly, and I confess that it left a painful impression. It seemed to me to have what the French call an *arrière-goût*, which was far from agreeable. The conversations recalled to me the Greek sophists, the enemies of Socrates, ready to defend any opinion and playing with ideas and with words. The priest, the prophet of the soul, Antistius, seemed impossible. I do not speak of the local color, for Renan has not even attempted to paint Alba Longa and Albans; he has shown us types—the reformer, the aristocrat, the patriot, the liberal, the believer, the sceptic, the sensualist, the cynic, the coward. Such types are found and will always be found in every country, in every age. But what did he mean, after all, by writing this drama? The conclusion you would naturally draw from it is a profound contempt and indif-

ference. The world, as it is shown in Alba, looks like a pantomime, a farce; it is a curious spectacle, and nothing else. The wise man is the man who stands quietly looking on, and is amused by men as an artist would be by the transformations of clouds and the changes of color. It is the old doctrine of Lucretius and of Epicurus:

"*Suave mari magno turbantibus æquora magnis*," etc.

Progress! What is progress? Everything is ever changing. Reform! The reformer is misunderstood; you cannot pour new ideas into minds which are not prepared to receive them. The reformer does more harm than good; after vain attempts he himself sees that he is becoming obnoxious, and that he must disappear. He acts like a false note in a concert. Humanity moves on like a millstone, crushing everything under its weight and stupidity. When the Priest of Nemi dies everybody is satisfied, and he is satisfied himself; he goes willingly out of a world which he tried to change but could not:

"*Je sortirai pour ma part satisfait
D'un monde où l'action n'est pas la sœur du rêve.*"

These verses, which I believe are Baudelaire's, the unfortunate author of "Les Fleurs du Mal," might be placed in the mouth of Antistius.

Let us see how M. Renan corrects the impression which is left by his drama, and how he explains the object he had in view:

"I have attempted in this work to develop an idea similar to the Hebrew Messianism—that is to say, the definitive triumph of religious and moral progress, notwithstanding the repeated victories of folly and of evil. I have tried to show the good cause gaining ground, notwithstanding the bitternesses, the disgraces, the weaknesses even, and the faults of its apostles and its martyrs. I wished to make evident (by injecting them, as they do in anatomical preparations) a network of truths all tending to the iron law which will have it that in politics crime is often recompensed and virtue generally punished. The picture is necessarily a sad one, as the foreground is occupied by the egoism of the great, the folly of the people, the impotence of the intelligent, the infamy of a lying priesthood, the weakness of the liberal priesthood, the easy deceptions of patriotism, the illusions of liberalism, the incurable baseness of the wicked. I believe the work to be healthy nevertheless, for one learns from it not to be too much moved by the unstable equilibrium of humanity, on seeing the good and the true emerge, after all, from the hideous pool where screams and rots all that is inert, coarse, and impure."

M. Renan admits that his new drama is but a continuation of his "Philosophical Dialogues." These dialogues, it must be confessed, did not find favor with the public, though Renan considers the dialogue the best form for a philosophical exposition, as philosophical truths are not like geometrical truths, and must ever be the subject and the occasion of debate. You cannot put Euclid, Gauss, or Cauchy in the form of a dialogue; but philosophy will ever be a sort of dialogue between two systems which are not susceptible of an absolute demonstration. But—

"I found," says Renan, "that the form of the dialogue is not sufficient; we must have some sort of action. A free drama, without local coloring, after the fashion of Shakespeare, will allow the rendering of much more delicate shades. . . . 'Coriolanus' and 'Julius Caesar' are not pictures of Roman manners; they are studies of absolute psychology. I tried, without any scenic intention, naturally, to do something similar. My dear master and friend, Baron d'Eckstein, had written a drama, the subject of which he never told me, which began before the beginning of the world, by a conversation between the Father and the Son in the presence of the Holy Spirit."

This beats the "Avocat, passons au déluge" of Racine's "Plaideurs." Renan took his fable from Strabo, who tells how in the Temple of Diana, on Lake Nemi, the priest, in order to have a legitimate authority, was bound to kill his predecessor with his own hand. He imagined a priest of Nemi who wished to abolish this old custom, as well as all human sacrifices, and this

priest, Antistius, became the type of the reformer who preaches in the desert and cannot be understood.

There is perhaps not much modesty in the manner in which Renan speaks of writing dramas "after the fashion of Shakspeare." But this has evidently become a fixed idea with him, for the "Prêtre de Nemi" is not his first philosophical drama. He has given us before "Caliban" and the "Eau de Jouvence," meant to be a sequel to the "Tempest." Renan's quality of mind is very remarkable; nothing can exceed the pliability, the elasticity of his intellect. His style has sometimes a delicacy, sometimes an eloquence, which cannot be equalled; but he is not a creator of types, he has not the poetical imagination which can make a new world. His heroes, his heroines are but abstractions: they have no real life, they are too conscious, they are wanting in naïveté. There is more creative power in a page of Victor Hugo than in the three philosophical dramas of Renan, and there is less in the "Prêtre de Nemi" than in the first two, "Caliban" and the "Eau de Jouvence."

I hope I shall not be deemed too severe if I say that there is also in the "Prêtre de Nemi" a certain lassitude and almost dullness; the style is less brilliant; it becomes in some places heavy and commonplace. "Aliquando dormitat Homerus." The priest Antistius, who means to change a religion, ought to be a little of an enthusiast; he is helpless, discouraged, he has no faith. Can you imagine the reformer saying quietly to himself, "I see that man needs narrow thoughts"; or, "The vulgarity of man makes of moral solitude a necessity for whoever rises above the multitude by genius or by heart"? Antistius has no sympathy; he asks, "Would it not be better to abandon men to the errors which they like?" He answers, it is true, "No, there is such a thing as reason, and reason does not exist without man. The friend of man must love humanity, since reason is only realized in humanity"; and, "Numberless smiles of the sea; you are nothing to the waves of dreams which humanity will go through before it arrives at something which resembles reason."

Antistius, who loves only reason, is insensible to love. The sibyl Carmenta bids him in vain. "Tell the sibyl to be a woman like any other woman; order her to become a mother. Let me bind a few flowers to my bosom, and crimp my hair. . . . Shall we alone be exempted from the law of love?" Antistius answers coolly that the sibyl must remain a virgin. She is bound by a vow, and "a vow made to the country, to honor, to duty, is always valid. . . . The gods to whom you made your vows perhaps do not exist, but the divine exists; you belong to it." This is the style of Antistius, and we can only hope that Carmenta, the sibyl, understood the difference between the gods and the godly. Poor Carmenta! Renan tells her: "Your beauty might have inspired love. *Tant pis!* You will die without having inspired any other sentiment but terror."

Carmenta wonders why the priest who preaches new truths, who is truthful himself, forces her, the sibyl, to lie when she speaks to the people; and it must be confessed that the answer of the priest is extremely sophistical and unsatisfactory. Antistius allows Carmenta to love him, since woman will never be able to do good but for "the love of a man." He even kisses her on the forehead, and says, "My sister in duty and martyrdom, I love you." But Carmenta must remain a sibyl, and she says: "Your sibyl will never leave off her black gown. . . . Sisters dressed in black, whom I augur in the future, when people shall come and, in the name of reason, lift your veil, refuse to be free, keep faithfully your vow of death. Woe to those who

are converted to vulgar common sense after having tasted divine folly!"

This perpetual antinomy between vulgar common sense and what Renan calls divine folly is found all through the new drama. Truth is made absurd and common sense stupid. Renan answers beforehand in his preface the criticisms which may be made against his "Prêtre de Nemi." He defends himself against those who would attribute to him the ideas which are placed in the mouth of some of the actors; but if all religious or even philosophical faith is shaken, if nothing remains in the intellectual world but doubt, we hardly see why Antistius should ever, like a phoenix, revive. "Antistius will," says Renan, "perpetually revive and perpetually fail, and, in the end, it will be found that the totality of his defeats will be worth a victory." He ends with these fervid words:

"In the great crisis which the triumph of positivism has produced in our time in moral truths, I have defended more than I have diminished the part of the ideal. I have not been among the timid spirits who think that truth needs shade, and that the Infinite fears the free air. I have criticised everything, and whatever people may say, I have maintained everything. . . . Our criticism has done more for the conservation of religion than all the apologists. We have found for God a rich collection of synonyms."

In the social order, Renan has asked himself the question:

"Who knows if truth is not sad? The edifice of human society reposes on a great vacuum. We have dared to say so. Nothing is more dangerous than to skate on thin ice without knowing that it is thin. I have never believed, in any order of thought, that it was bad to see too well. All truth is good to know, for all truth well known makes man strong and prudent, two things equally necessary to those whom their duty, an imprudent ambition, or their evil destiny, has called to occupy themselves with the affairs of this poor humanity."

Correspondence.

THE IGNORING OF THE MORAVIAN MISSIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your review of the 'History of the Moravian Church,' by Bishop de Schweinitz (*Nation*, No. 1066), the comparative silence of our historians about the labors of the Moravians in America is explained by the remark that their activity was not conspicuous in the political field as was that of the Puritans of New England and the Presbyterians of New Jersey." This is true and to the purpose, although individuals, like Christian Frederick Post, and, indirectly, the missionaries as a body, were of much service to the English colonies. But another fact seems to have some bearing on the matter, namely, the silence of contemporary religious writers. Thus, in the 'Plain and Faithful Narrative' which Eleazar Wheelock, one of the best friends of the Indians during the colonial period, published in successive numbers, as a kind of bulletin, between 1768 and 1775, there is a manifest effort to avoid speaking of the United Brethren. In 1772 David McLure and Levi Frisbie, Wheelock's pupils, undertook a mission to the Delawares in Ohio. They failed chiefly because the Moravians, with a considerable body of converts from their Eastern missions, were then establishing themselves by invitation in the Delaware territories. The New Englanders saw both the missionaries and their disciples, and must have known why they were themselves politely dismissed. But the 'Narrative' does not make the most distant allusion to the Brethren, and mentions, without trying to account for, the singular disposition of certain Indians to live like white farmers. The cause of this reticence was undoubtedly the general distrust then felt of Moravian teaching and methods—a distrust which lingered long after it had become plain that these foreigners were neither Frenchmen nor Jesuits. It survived, too, the irresistible proofs supplied for years in western Connecticut, that they were doing the Indians a great deal of good. Both the religious parties in New England, the Old Lights and the New Lights, regarded the Brethren as unsafe spiritual guides; and, being unable to speak evil of a good work, they commonly said nothing. When McLure published long afterwards a life of his teacher, prejudice had subsided, and he bestowed high praise on the Moravians.

After giving this example of one result of the *odium theologicum*, I may be allowed to emphasize the fact that very excellent work was done among the Indians by both Old Light and New Light missionaries. And it was done in virtue of something which they possessed in common with the Moravians—the essential spirit of Christianity, unselfish love to God and man.

W. G. ANDREWS.

GUILFORD, CONN., December 7, 1885.

CONSUMPTION AMONG THE FOREIGN-BORN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the editorial entitled "Prolonging Human Life," in your issue of December 5, Massachusetts statistics are used to show the diminution in the death-rate from consumption from 1857 to the present time—a diminution which is very striking, and was dwelt upon by me in a paper read before the American Climatological Society at its meeting in New York last spring. When speaking of the causes of this diminution, you fall, as I believe, into grave error in asserting that "a portion of this decrease may fairly be ascribed to the infusion in the population of a large foreign element less subject to consumption than the native."

In 1870 the foreign-born population of Boston formed 33.12 per cent. of the whole inhabitants, whereas, of all the deaths caused by phthisis in the city during ten years, 1864-73, 51.37 per cent. took place among the foreign-born. Next, 64.65 per cent. of the foreign-born were Irish, but of the foreign decedents by phthisis during ten years, 75.08 per cent. were Irish. This special liability to phthisis of the Irish, who in Boston and the State generally alike are decidedly more numerous than the foreign-born of all other nationalities combined, is fully borne out by other statistics, as can be seen in the following table:

	Irish Percentage of Foreign Population.	Irish Percentage of all Foreign Decedents from Consumption.
1870.		
Boston	64.65	75.08
New York	48.02	69.00
United States	33.3	47.8

It must, again, be remembered that as "native-born" are classed all children born of Irish or other foreign parentage, and the well-known predisposing influence of heredity in phthisis must be kept in mind. It seems to me that these figures, which could under other circumstances be further developed with interest and profit, show beyond doubt that the decrease in the death-rate from phthisis in Massachusetts has taken place in spite of the infusion in the population of a large foreign element more subject to consumption than the native. It is my belief that the decrease is mainly attributable to the prevention of phthisis by improved hygiene, especially among the native-born, but that some of it must be credited to more frequent arrest and cure of the actually developed disease through early diagnosis and more rational treatment.—Yours very truly,

FRED'K C. SHATTUCK, M.D.

BOSTON, December 7, 1885.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your valuable article of December 3 on "Prolonging Human Life," it is stated that in Massachusetts for the past twenty-five years there has been a marked decrease in the number of deaths from consumption. This sentence follows: "A portion of this decrease may fairly be ascribed to the infusion in the population of a large foreign element less subject to consumption than the native." In Massachusetts the chief immigration is from Ireland. In one seaport town which has an unusually large Irish colony the annual number of deaths from consumption among them is startling in itself, and far greater than among the natives; their knowledge and practice of the laws of hygiene being naturally limited. This fact decidedly strengthens your main argument.—Very respectfully,

M. G. M.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., December 11, 1885.

SHORT O AND SHORT A.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was much interested to see in your examples of phonetic English spelling, taken from Mr. Sweet's work, the pronunciation of *ä* and *ö*. The short *o* and short *a* are completely confounded by the youth of Southern Ohio. Color is pronounced *cälär*, done *dane*, some *same*, etc. In the pronunciation of Greek this practice works some confusion, the penultimate vowels of *τιμῶν* and *δολῶν* being pronounced exactly alike. More than this, the ear seems unable to distinguish between the spoken sounds of omicron and short alpha, a failing which is continually made apparent in correcting orally Greek prose exercises. I am inclined to think that the *ö* sound is gradually disappearing in this part of the country, as hot is pronounced like hat, and not the reverse. The usage, however, seems limited to those whose childhood has been passed in this section, and of course there are exceptions among careful speakers. In New England I think omicron is sounded, for the sake of convenience, like *o* in not, and short *a* like *a* in hat; but it is very difficult, almost impossible, to get the former sound here. I do not know to what extent the pronunciation prevails elsewhere.

W. A. M.

COLLEGE HILL, OHIO, December 7, 1885.

MRS. THAYER'S WILD FLOWERS OF COLORADO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: We ask for space in your columns to answer an unwarranted attack made upon a lady, Mrs. Emma Homan Thayer, whose book, "The Wild Flowers of Colorado," we have the honor to publish.

We not only have the word of Mrs. Thayer, which we are perfectly satisfied to accept, but that of eye-witnesses, that the illustrations in her book are, as the title-page announces, "from original water-color sketches drawn from nature." The claim of Miss Alice H. Stewart's friends that Mrs. Thayer's studies were made from sketches by Miss Stewart we believe to be as false as the claim of several authoresses unknown to fame to the authorship of the *Saxe-Holme Stories*. There seems to be a strange mania among a certain class of persons which takes the form of a claim upon the successful work of others.

We beg to append a letter received by us from Kate Ball McClure, of Denver, which bears the same testimony as several others in our possession:

"In the *Nation* of the 29th of October, I saw a letter signed 'L. J. S.' I wish, in the fewest words possible, to correct what must be a very

great mistake. I accompanied the authoress of 'Wild Flowers of Colorado,' Emma Homan Thayer, on her trips over the mountains, and saw her paint the flowers so faithfully represented in her book. They are not only correctly drawn, but are perfect pictures of the wild flowers of our State. Having painted for years and given the flora of Colorado special study, I feel it only justice to Mrs. Thayer to write this letter."

CASSELL & COMPANY, Limited.

739 AND 741 BROADWAY,
NEW YORK, December 3, 1885.

[We have received a similar letter from another companion of Mrs. Thayer on the same excursion, who says: "To my personal knowledge Mrs. Thayer did sketch and paint from nature most of the flowers produced in that book, and such of them as I cannot speak of thus positively Miss Stewart does not claim."—ED. NATION.]

CORNELL CONGRESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your edition of November 26 you published a letter describing the "Students' House of Commons" at Johns Hopkins University. A society similar in purpose, but entirely different in organization, was established last year at Cornell University and continues in successful operation. A complete Senate and House of Representatives were organized. The membership of the former was limited to eighteen, and of the latter to fifty-four. All students are eligible to the House; Juniors, Seniors, and graduates to the Senate. The House does the work of State Legislatures in electing the Senators. In both branches members are assigned to different States and districts according to politics. To facilitate discussion and keep up party spirit, no one party is allowed to have a majority of all the members.

As far as possible, the methods of the national Congress are followed. The Senate and House rules govern practice, and bills are referred to the usual committees and discussed by them. Attendance in the House this year has varied from about thirty-five to forty-five. A senior member of the Faculty consented to accept a position relative to the Congress corresponding to that held in the national Government by the President of the United States, and at the beginning of the "session" wrote an able message, dealing with questions of civil service, tariff reform, currency, Indian policy, etc., and especially recommending the establishment of a great national university.

The object of the mock Congress, as stated at its organization, is "to discuss current and national topics, and to acquire a knowledge of the Constitution and practice in parliamentary law." As an example of the subjects considered may be cited bills for the suspension of silver coinage, for the issue of silver certificates, and for the distribution of surplus revenue among the States. Especially interesting has been the debate upon a proposed Constitutional amendment prohibiting the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors. In the discussion the purpose has been not so much to train parliamentarians and possible future Congressmen as to enable the members to understand current politics, and to follow intelligently the course of legislation. The plan adopted here seems much better than that followed at Johns Hopkins, as it promotes a knowledge of the machinery of our own Government, and further does not involve the evident inconsistency of debating questions relating to American society and institutions in a body modelled after the British House of Commons.

F.

ITHACA, N. Y., December 5, 1885.

THE "MYSTERY" OF THE ENGLISH ELECTIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The elections in England are sufficiently interesting in their bearing on the future of that country, but they have, apart from that, a very special lesson for us. In your last number you refer to them in refutation of the theory of the Jefferson Democrats (though I do not see why they should be credited with a monopoly of it as against the Republicans of recent years), that the Civil-Service-Reform Act is wrong because, in the absence of offices to distribute among the party workers, the interest of the American people in politics will rapidly die out, and it will finally be difficult to get them to vote, not to speak of taking the trouble to canvass either in public or in private. You then say that in England, notwithstanding only a few of the very highest offices are in question, and notwithstanding the severest laws, most stringently executed, against the use of money, bribery, or undue influence in elections, there never was an electoral conflict carried on with greater heat than the present one. And you conclude:

"Now, what is the meaning of the enormous vote which is being polled in England, and the intense excitement which is being displayed under the most discouraging circumstances? Why do the workers work, and the candidates run, and the orators orate, and the rioters riot, and the voters vote, and the committees hire the halls, and the people crowd them, when there is neither money nor office in the contest?"

The answer to these questions seems to me perfectly simple and clear, and that without invalidating the above theory, which, in the present state of our politics, it is to be feared, is unfortunately but too correct. To state definitely the Q. E. D.: the political methods in England are such as to arouse the interest and enthusiasm of the people, while in this country they are not. In the first place, the Liberal and Conservative parties are distinctly divided. No doubt the Conservative of to-day would have been called a Radical fifty years ago, and on different questions the line is drawn with varying degrees of sharpness; but still it is well understood that the Liberals are for pushing forward and the Conservatives for holding back. This distinction is maintained in Parliament, the party attitude on every question being kept up and intensified by public debate. But the crowning difference is in the identification of principles with persons. The mass of the people have very hazy ideas about free trade, local government, Parliamentary procedure, or even the land question, but they know that Mr. Gladstone and his lieutenants represent certain general views of these questions, and that it will rest with his Ministry to shape the details. Mr. Gladstone is for them the concrete embodiment of certain ends which they desire, and his personal qualities come in as a powerful reinforcement. The bitter personal hatred of Mr. Gladstone in London society is nothing more than an expression of fear of the hold which he has upon the nameless millions. The weakness of the Tories is less in their principles than in the fact that they have no champion to match with him.

This personal influence may be a good or bad thing, but it is the secret of the excitement of the English elections, and it is the only way, except actual fighting, in which masses of men can be roused to put forth their strength. This is one-man power, it is true, but it is so only because the people believe that he is devoted to their interests. If the fiercest opposition could fasten on him a suspicion that he was pursuing his own interest as against theirs, he would lose his power in a moment. Only the master of a standing army can maintain a position like that.

The power is in the will of the people, and there is no country in the world where the will of the people finds expression as it does in Great Britain to day.

In this country the only real dividing line between the parties as such is the possession of office. There is not a single question of which it can be said to be distinctively Democratic or Republican, and on every one the dividing line among the people would be differently drawn. The House is Democratic and the Senate Republican, but what meaning has the distinction except in its relation to the Executive? The committees which manage everything are made up of both parties, and settle questions upon motives of which the country knows nothing, but strongly suspects to consist in political trading. What debate there is has absolutely no meaning. The element of personality is totally wanting. There is nobody who in the public mind represents anything. President Cleveland stands, indeed, at the moment, for civil-service reform, but not as a principle, and only because the Constitution gives him the power of appointment to office; and not as a party leader, for it is safe to say that both parties in Congress are against him. It is simply a question of his individual stubbornness. There is something pathetic in the idea of this single and necessarily silent man, fighting like Horatius upon the Tiber bridge, and without a single voice raised in effective support. And civil-service reform is, after all, a mere administrative detail. It was settled in England, once for all, thirty years ago, and no one ever thinks of raising it. But on all political questions—tariff, silver, navy, currency, Indians, etc.—the President and his Cabinet have little more power in determining policy than any average citizen.

The country knew perfectly well, in the election last autumn, that it was not promoting a settlement of any of them. The campaign turned upon the moral character of the candidates—a thing which in England hardly comes into question at all. It was mortifying, but it was only another illustration how a widely extended suffrage will have personality for its object, with political questions if it can, without them if it cannot. If we expect to substitute political enthusiasm for office-seeking as a motive power, we shall have to adopt some method of tying politics to personality.

Political leadership is what the country needs, and the solution of that problem is to be found in two words only—Cabinet responsibility.

G. B.

Boston, December 7, 1885.

VENICE IN SUMMER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Alluding to your interesting paragraph about Venice in summer, in last week's issue, let me ask you not to leave your readers in the mistaken opinion that they must choose between the canals (whose condition may not be as bad as you seem to think) and the flat, shelving Adriatic beach. Those who want a swim, as distinguished from a dip, go to the swimming bath which is moored off shore in the harbor, the Canale di San Marco. The spot was formerly between the Molo and San Giorgio Maggiore, and afterward was between the Dogana and San Giorgio; perhaps it will be in the old place next year, and perhaps over at the southern side, toward the Giudecca. Everywhere there is deep water—about eight metres off the Molo, about six off the Dogana, at low water. And the bather waits until the tide has been flowing strongly for at least an hour, and then takes a gondola and goes off to the bath-house, and dives into pure salt water. It is a pity that no restaur-

rant sufficient for breakfast, at least, exists at the bath; nothing is there but a wretched show of drinkables and cakes and biscuits; in fact, it is one of the desiderata at Venice—some good eating-place which enjoys the sea breeze and commands a view over the Lagoon. For an open-air dinner or breakfast one is obliged to go to the Lagoon, though not by steamboat, unless he has to be very saving indeed: why should he go by steamboat, with gondolas ready to take him, to wait for him, and to bring him back for perhaps two francs? But it is a pleasant place; and as the guest sits at his little table and waits to be served, he can see the bathers walking out to sea in search of water enough to cover them, and thinks, if he is a swimmer, that he will not imitate them.

But let us insist upon the main point, that Venice in summer is delightful. It is pleasant in May, pleasant in October, and perhaps pleasantest of all in August. And the beauty of sea and sky, the blue light over the Lagoon by day, the loveliness of the night sky, are not to be fully understood until one has resided in Venice in the height of summer.

R. S.

PHILADELPHIA'S PROVINCIALISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your editorial article of November 26, on "The Lesson of Philadelphia," does not appeal to Philadelphians as a satisfactory explanation of a state of things which, every one admits, is very wretched. If you have taken the wrong ground, and I think you have not, the matter becomes hopelessly obscure. If it is not protection, what is it? Your view is confirmed by the fact that Philadelphia has only come under the reproach of provincialism since the State at large has become so violent a champion of protection. I am glad that Mr. Harkness has the freedom of your paper to say plainly what he, with hundreds of business men in this city, feel to be the truth about the Pennsylvania Railroad Company. But there is some doubt whether a railroad company whose first object is to get an outlet and inlet at New York for its Western traffic, will compass the "deliverance of this commonwealth," or that "the spell will be broken" by its interposition. The Baltimore and Ohio has treated Baltimore even more shockingly than the Pennsylvania Railroad has treated Philadelphia. It is nearly certain that if the Baltimore and Ohio revolutionize the industrial, intellectual, and social condition of this city, the result will be incidental to the great struggle between the rival companies. The Baltimore and Ohio once seriously debated whether it should not go around Philadelphia. It certainly is not coming here with any avowed regenerative purpose.

For the purposes of teaching a free-trade lesson your article was well to the point. Naturally Philadelphians are a bit loath to admit that protection is the root of the evil. Whatever the reason of it all is, I do not understand how any one who looks at the situation with fair-mindedness or judgment can be led to make such statements as does your correspondent "D. G." (*Nation*, No. 1067), about the Quakers and the Dutch. "D. G." conceives that the Quakers and the Dutch are responsible for "Philadelphia's degeneracy." Let me quote:

"The Quakers founded Philadelphia. For the first 100 years of her existence they controlled her principles and policy. Since then their influence, though gradually diminishing, has always been great. The history of these people is full of acts of heroism and benevolence; but the essence of their belief is resistance to change of every sort, in dress, customs, and ideas. They never doubt, and they never investigate. They are incapable of intellectual inquiry, and they hate it."

The lines I have italicized were either written in the most careless and gross ignorance, or dictated by some petty spite. Some one else may speak for the Dutch, but as a member of the religious society of Friends (called Quakers), I am competent to reply that the above assertions are untrue; that no man who pretends to be fair-minded and at all informed concerning the Friends can support them for a single moment. "D. G.'s" remark that "They (the Dutch) are far inferior to the Quakers, have less natural ability, less education, less refinement," would give to the reader who was entirely ignorant on the subject the impression that the Quakers as a body and the Pennsylvania Dutch farmers might be classed together, though the former had the advantage in ability, education, and refinement. His statement reads as if it were intended to be patronizing and offensive. Of the Quakers he says: "They are incapable of intellectual inquiry, and they hate it," and of the Dutch, "High progress among them is an impossibility." The former of these statements is untrue, and it is hard to conceive that "D. G." did not know that it was false when he wrote it. He goes on to say:

"Their descendants (of the Dutch and the Quakers) are still with us—somewhat changed, it is true, dragged by force of circumstances and the march of modern civilization into a little improvement, but always holding and resisting with all their might. When the mass of the people are of this character, the efforts of the progressive few are in vain."

When a man makes such slanderous statements as these about a body of people who are everywhere held in such high regard and esteem as the Quakers, he should make them over his full signature. I am not attempting to defend Philadelphia. I only make this assertion: Take the Friends in this city as a body, and compare with them the most intelligent, refined, and public-spirited members of the remainder of the community, and the Friends will be found to be among the leaders, if not altogether in the van. They constitute a large majority of "the progressive few." As a body, Friends are celebrated for their high average intelligence and refinement. They certainly take the lead in this respect among those religious bodies which in England would be called dissenting, and into which men are forced rather by sincere conviction than by fashion and by conventionality. In this city if they do not take the first social position it is only because they renounce it. It is notorious that the people who pride themselves most on their social standing are connected on all sides with the Friends.

Least of all can they be justly accused of lack of public spirit. All Philadelphians know of the Pennsylvania Hospital, and are under obligations to the Friends for their part in it. Haverford College is an institution which deserves the highest rank among the smaller colleges. Last September was opened, under the management of the Friends, Bryn Mawr College for women. It is an institution which practises the most advanced educational methods (those of the Johns Hopkins University, which, by the way, was endowed by a Friend, and is largely managed by members of that society), and which has, so far, proved to be a remarkable success. Every Philadelphian knows that the men who have been foremost in all reform movements set on foot in this city were members of the Society of Friends. The Chairmanship of the Committee of One Hundred since its inception has been held by a Friend. I can think, off-hand, of at least twelve of the most active members of that committee who are Friends. Can it be possible that "D. G." was ignorant of all this when he wrote his letter to the *Nation*?

As is very evident, I am not suggesting theories to explain Philadelphia's sad plight, or bringing

forward remedies. My point is that Philadelphia has not been brought into her present condition by any apathy or lack of public spirit on the part of the Quakers. The Dutch only have influence in the State; the original indictment was against the city.—Very truly,

T. K. WORTHINGTON.

11 E. PENN STREET, GERMANTOWN.

[We have also received letters vehemently opposing some of the sweeping assertions of "D. G.," in our last issue, concerning the non-production of great men in Pennsylvania. Our space does not permit us to prolong the discussion in this direction, and we think we may fairly adjourn it to the columns of the Philadelphia press (where, indeed, "D. G." is already being flayed alive), or to the *Pennsylvania Magazine of American History*.—ED. NATION.]

POLITICS IN THE PENSION OFFICE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your criticism of General Black in the current number of the *Nation* for injecting a stump speech into his official report as Commissioner of Pensions, while at the same time you vouch for his alleged facts as unquestionably true, has attracted my attention. I have not seen his report, but in the bill of particulars with which you follow the general statement that "the Pension Office has been used for partisan purposes in the most shameless way," I think I see the earmarks of the gushing Commissioner, and so presume the items were chiefly gathered from that paper.

The particular feature upon which I desire to be heard is referred to in your remark that, "from the Chief of the Bureau down to the Medical Examining Board, almost every place has been filled with Republicans upon system." This I take to be an echo of the report, because it clearly implies (although it does not definitely charge) what the Commissioner proclaimed through the agency of Newspaper Row, when he foreshadowed his intention of reorganizing the medical examining boards, viz.: that they were not only partisan bodies in the sense that they were chiefly composed of Republicans, but that in their professional work the members were swayed by partisan considerations. Before giving my judgment on this wholesale indictment, let me say that that judgment has not been formed under the bias of a preconceived notion that ours is the best civil service on earth. On the contrary, I have been in sympathetic accord with the *Nation's* discussions of the subject from the time of the introduction of the Jenckes Reform Bill, and, let me confess it, so thoroughly indoctrinated by them that I have been unable to follow you in now yielding—as it seems to me you do—the essential principle of the reform by admitting that unexceptionable officers ought to be removed until a political balance of the service is reached. Fully recognizing, then, the extent to which the civil service had become debauched by the general acceptance of the doctrine that the business offices of the Government were the legitimate rewards of party service, I am ready to hazard my reputation for sanity by saying that I believe the official work of the medical service of the Pension Office has been, with rare possible exceptions, as uncolored by partisanship as that of the medical service of the army and navy. The members of medical examining boards know nothing whatever of the political affiliations of the great majority of the applicants who appear before them; and if they were governed by no higher considerations, they have enough to do to earn the scanty fee they

receive for each examination, without wasting their time on matters wholly foreign to their work.

The medical service of the Pension Office has suffered, in common with all other branches of the civil service, in the appointment and retention of incompetent men under the patronage theory that has so long obtained; but the nature of its work, and the conditions under which it is performed, are not favorable to the development of partisanship in its performance. I speak from an experience of over twenty-two years as an examining surgeon, the beginning of my service antedating by several years the establishment of examining boards, and I have abundant reason for saying that every Commissioner of Pensions, from Barrett (under whom the office first had a medical service of its own) down to Dudley, has honestly tried to keep that service clean and to promote its efficiency.

Medical examining boards as first constituted were extra-legal bodies, created by the fiat of the Commissioner, in order to minimize the evils growing out of the presence in the service of incompetent men which he—though nominally the appointing officer—was compelled by the power behind the throne, the Congressional office-brokers, to retain upon its rolls. So long as the size of the boards lay within the discretion of the Commissioner, he found it impossible to keep those in the larger cities within widely and efficient proportions, the pressure from Congressmen being, as before, too strong to be resisted. He, therefore, secured the enactment of a law providing for their creation as permanent bodies, and restricting the number of members to three—an act which has proved of great value to the service. That a large majority of the members of the medical examining boards have been Republicans is doubtless true, but it is unwarrantable to say that these places have been filled with Republicans upon system. The board in this city, of which I was a member from its organization until my removal by Commissioner Black a few months ago, has always had a Democratic member, and, what is much more to the purpose (as bearing upon the charge of systematic packing with Republicans), when strong partisan influences were brought to bear upon the Commissioner to secure the removal of a member because he was a Democrat, in order that his place might be given to a Republican, my successful protest against his removal was (beyond vouching for him as a capable and conscientious officer) based distinctly upon the ground that the Board had never had and ought not to be invested with any political significance whatever. This occurred during the service of Commissioner Dudley, who has been more strongly accused of partisanship in office than any of his predecessors. I know of instances of examining surgeons, Democrats, who were avowed rebels during the war, against whom charges have been preferred by disappointed applicants who fancied that they had not been justly treated by them, and insisted that the fact of their having been rebels was presumptive evidence that they did not feel a proper sympathy for wounded Union soldiers. Special examiners of the Pension Office were detailed to investigate these cases, and upon their reports that the surgeons were conscientious men, and professionally the most competent in their neighborhoods, Commissioner Dudley refused to dismiss them.

The nature of my relations to the Pension Office has not been such as to give me any information relative to Commissioner Dudley's operations in the Ohio campaign of 1884; but it has been such as to warrant me in speaking with confidence of his attitude toward the medical service of his bureau; and justice to him and to his predecessors constrains me to say that I believe none

of them have ever manifested any disposition to sacrifice its efficiency to partisan considerations.

General Black seems to have been the first of the whole line of Commissioners to whom it has occurred that he might possibly make this service an active factor in partisan or personal politics. At all events, he is the first of his line to advertise for volunteers to assist in looting the medical examining boards as a part of the legitimate plunder of a partisan victory. It might well be that in his contempt for those who would overlook so tempting a possibility of opening up an entirely new field of partisan activity, he overlooked the indecency of making his official report the vehicle of its expression. He should have confined his "stop thief" cry to his usual channel of communication with the public—the bureau of the Washington correspondents.—Respectfully,

JOSEPH ROBBINS.

QUINCY, ILL., December 9, 1885.

Notes.

KARL KRON, known to all readers of cycling journals, at last announces for February, 1886, his long elaborated 'Ten Thousand Miles on a Bicycle'—not, as the title might imply, a simple record of personal adventure, but a most practical and minute guide for those who follow after in respect to roads, inns, transportation, etc., etc. It is safe to say that it will be an indispensable book to every tourist on the wheel. The addresses of subscribers will be printed with it. Karl Kron's address is University Building, Washington Square, New York city.

Ginn & Co., Boston, have in press Adolf Kaegi's 'Rigveda,' translated by R. Arrowsmith; and a 'Music Primer,' by G. A. Veazie, jr.

S. C. Heath & Co., Boston, will issue next month an American edition of Compayre's 'Histoire de la Pédagogie,' translated by W. H. Payne, Professor in the University of Michigan.

A new monthly periodical, entitled *Modern Language Notes*, and devoted to the interests of the academic study of English, German, and the Romance languages, is announced to appear with the new year, under the editorial management of Prof. A. M. Elliott, aided by several of his colleagues and assistants in the Johns Hopkins University. The Modern Language Association of America, by the way, will hold its third annual meeting in Boston on December 29, 30.

T. Fisher Unwin's 'Annual for 1885' is to be called 'The Broken Shaft,' and will consist of seven tales and an introduction by the clever writers caught on the steamer *Bavaria* in the Christmas season by the accident above-mentioned. Mr. Henry Norman edits the collection, and furnishes the introduction and the seventh tale. F. M. Crawford, R. L. Stevenson, F. Anstey, W. H. Pollock, William Archer, and Tighe Hopkins are his co-laborers. A few illustrations adorn the work. D. Appleton & Co. will be the American publishers.

Mr. Archer, by the way, has a critical study of his fellow-passenger, Robert Louis Stevenson, in the November number of *Time*.

The second volume in Roberts Brothers' translations from Balzac is the 'Duchesse de Langeais,' with some smaller and (in the original) not savory pieces. We have also received 'After-Dinner Stories from Balzac, done into English by Myndart Verelst, with an introduction by Edgar Saltus' (New York: George J. Coombes). In both cases the translations are bad—very unfaithful, we may add, without reference to the expurgations (in the interest of Anglo-Saxon decency) which characterize the Boston volume particularly. On this point it cannot be necessary to expatiate. That which is of the essence of an author's work cannot honestly be sup-

pressed by a translator, even though the alternative be to abandon his task altogether. In another point of view, one must deprecate such an adaptation, *pueris virginibusque*, as shall enable ingenuous youth to acknowledge having read (as they suppose) works which, in their entirety, they would blush to read or to have read.

Miss Healy's 'Painters of the Italian Renaissance' (Belford, Clarke & Co.) may be recommended to "the young people of the United States," to whom it is dedicated, as on the whole a sound and useful piece of elementary art history. Of course, it contains nothing new, the facts and dates being compiled from acknowledged authorities, and the critical judgments of the safe and traditional order. The style is clear and simple, without any tendency toward either "gush" or childishness, and the engravings by T. de Mare are the most adequate we have ever seen in a book of this class; that which falls the furthest short of the mark is the plate of the "Mona Lisa," with which picture engravers have always struggled in vain. These illustrations, though good, are somewhat too highly praised by the author, who says of the plate of Titian's Charles V., for example, "the engraving gives the portrait itself. One almost sees the rich coloring." The paper and typography are good and misprints are rare. We have noticed Polaino for Polaiuolo (constantly), and Paris for Paris (p. 168). The most unfortunate thing about the book is the cover, which is tastelessly designed.

A. D. F. Randolph & Co. have had the making of many handsome books this season, and such may well be pronounced 'Christmas-Tide in Song and Story.' It has a *Pars Sacra* and a *Pars Secularis*, in the latter of which figure selections from Irving, Dickens, Thackeray, J. A. Symonds, H. C. Andersen, Phoebe Cary, Charles Mackay, Tennyson, and yet other writers. The binding is well conceived, and the paper and presswork are all that could be desired.

There is the usual flood of Christmas cards of every imaginable size, style, and price, and of every degree of appropriateness and inappropriateness of subject, from Mr. Low's seriously designed "Nativity" (L. Prang & Co.)—unfortunately spoiled in the lithographing—to spring and summer landscapes and comic animals. There are gorgeous pieces of upholstery in satin, with bows of ribbon and easel backs, and there are modest bits of pasteboard for short purses. From Hildesheimer & Faulkner (London; New York, Appleton) we notice even palettes and cocked-hats. The designing of these prettinesses doubtless brings bread to the mouths of many well-meaning beginners in art, and gives pleasure to those who send and receive them, but there is very little merit as art or decoration in most of them. Perhaps the purely floral designs are the best, on the whole, for flowers are always pleasant, and require far less knowledge and training on the part of the designer than more ambitious subjects. One of the noticeable things about all these cards is the rarity of anything like good and artistic lettering. George R. Lockwood & Son send what seems to be a novelty—a set of selections of Christmas literature in prose and verse, neatly printed and bound in white paper with gilt lettering. Some cards from Raphael Tuck & Sons approach nearer the style of design common upon handkerchief and cuff boxes than anything we have seen.

Two large and elaborate landscape etchings by Benjamin Lander come to us from C. Klackner (New York). They are pretty but overworked. The artist has made the mistake of trying to give full tone and has lost all simplicity and largeness of line, drawing the hair on the cows rather than the cows, and the grass upon the ground rather than the ground. The figures in one of them are very feeble.

The 'Wide Awake Art Prints' (Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.) are a set of excellent photographic reproductions, by the new Lewis process, of original drawings and paintings originating in the *Wide Awake* magazine, and are sold at a cheap rate.

The literary trade organs, like the *Publishers' Weekly*, the *Bookseller*, and the *Book News*, all make a handsome appearance this year in their holiday issues, filled with sample illustrations of the season's product. L. W. Schmidt sends us a corresponding German organ, *Seemann's Literarischer Jahresbericht und Weihnachtskatalog*, in which the engravings are as a rule inferior to our own, but which nevertheless employs colored inks in a way suggestive of great recklessness as to cost. The color may be uniform for text and engraving, or it may be reserved for the latter alone, and there may be more than one tint. Doubtless it is more expensive to print cuts with the care that we do in black and white, than to indulge in these fancy tints occasionally, with extra press-work. At all events a magazine like *Vom Fels zum Meer*, or a catalogue like Seemann's (which, by the way, is printed in Roman type), does colorwise what is almost never attempted among us.

Our poets differ greatly in their capacity for being chopped up into daily quotations for the new fashionable literary calendars. Without putting to the test the "Lowell Calendar" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), we may be sure that the compiler had little difficulty in finding 365 passages able to stand on their own legs, as it were, and worth committing by heart for their own sake—if that, by no means the worst use these calendars can be put to, should be attempted. The background of this particular calendar is of gilt, with a good portrait of Mr. Lowell, and a view of his ancestral Elmwood in "June, dear June," in lively colors.

From D. Lothrop & Co., Boston, we have a "Golden-Text Calendar," of a Scriptural and Sunday-school cast.

Freckish is the "Ruling Lights Calendar" devised by Miss E. N. Little and published (or manufactured and sold) by A. L. Cassino, Boston. A nickel-plated standard, with cross yoke, holds in front a lozenge-shaped mat bearing the name of the month, a landscape or other design, and some pietistic symbolism; and at each extremity of the yoke round pasteboard counters marked with the numbers and days respectively. These are so hung on rings as to permit of being turned back daily or monthly. But *clearness*, the first requisite in a calendar, has been lost sight of, and it would be worth one's eyes to use this steadily.

Mr. Duncan MacGregor Crerar's poem, read before the Burns Society of this city on the 126th anniversary of the poet's birthday, has been very tastefully printed in brown ink on rough paper by Marcus Ward & Co. Each stanza has a leaf to itself, and the page is adorned with some view or design memorial of Burns, as his birthplace, his farm, his mausoleum, Stirling Castle, Ayr, etc., etc. His bold autograph is imitated on the first leaf. A blue ribbon is the only binding. The souvenir is well calculated to please the Scottish fancy.

So varied are the contents of Vols. 70, 71 of *Harper's Monthly*, just received in their bound form, that they can hardly be summarized. The illustrations have fully maintained their high level. Among portraits, those of Lincoln and Grant are preëminent, while the series representing Jersey cattle in America, the cuts after Barye's sculpture, and the landscape views attending (and outweighing) 'Nature's Serial Story,' are perfection in their respective kinds.

The 'Family Genealogical Record,' issued by W. B. Clarke & Carruth, Boston, is a compact

arrangement of blank spaces, comprehending ten generations of ancestry. It appears to us, however, inferior to the ingenious Trumbull-Whitmore 'Ancestral Tablets' (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.), which, moreover, is quite as ready as the ordinary pedigree-hunter needs.

The second part of the great 'New English Dictionary,' edited for the Philological Society by Dr. Murray (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), is now procurable. It extends from *Anta* to *Baffening*. We shall speak of it in detail hereafter. It is pleasant to read of the fresh voluntary assistance rendered in the most disinterested way by scholars and authors. Among the regular volunteers who contributed so much to the fulness and accuracy of Part I., Dr. Fitzelward Hall still honorably represents our country and our learning.

The customary novelty in *Science* is for the last issue a plate of portraits of Washington, in three groups—profile, nearly full face, and three quarters—with a resultant "composite" from each. That derived from the five in the lower right-hand corner (which range from 1785 to 1790), and include Houdon's bust and Trumbull's portrait is quite the most satisfactory. Among the articles noteworthy are Mr. Arnold Hague's account of the disintegration of the Central Park obelisk, under its new climatic conditions, and a discussion of a map of statues in France, the tall Gauls being those north and east of a line drawn approximately from Grenoble to Havre.

Mrs. Howard Vincent, who visited this country last year, has just published an account of her travels, entitled 'Forty Thousand Miles over Land and Water.' The information which she was able to gather is at times exceedingly interesting, as will be inferred from this extract from her description of Boston: "There is the old Scotch church, so famous as the political meeting-place of the Boston Tea Party; Tancred Hall, the 'Cradle of Liberty,' nurtured by the patriotic orations of Adams, Everett, and above all of Daniel Webster." In another place she says: "The Toronto University is second only to Harvard on the American Continent." This latter remark reminds us that a recent writer in a foreign journal speaks of the university at "St. Ann's Harbour" in Michigan.

The most important of the works commemorative of the revolution of the Edict of Nantes appears to be the 'History of the French Colony in Brandenburg, Prussia,' recently published by the Consistory of the French Church in Berlin. It is a large, richly illustrated volume, in the preparation of which the editor, Dr. Ed. Muret, has had access to the documents preserved in the State and Refuge archives. In an appendix there are detailed accounts of each of the forty-nine French colonies in Prussia, the largest of which, at the close of the seventeenth century, formed a fourth part of the population of Berlin. Striking evidence is given in it of the reviving influence which the refugees had upon education, literature, the industries, and the horticulture of Prussia, coming as they did at a time when the country was still prostrate from the effects of the Thirty Years' War.

The contributions made to German literature by these colonists and their descendants is even still more forcibly shown in the 'France Protestante' of M. Haig. This monumental work, which was first published in 1845-50, contains not only biographies of all French Protestants of note and their descendants, but also elaborate bibliographical descriptions of their works, chiefly French and German. The first part of the fifth volume of a second and greatly enlarged edition of this work, containing the letter D, has just been published in Paris.

The Antiquarium of F. A. Brockhaus, in Leip-

zig, has purchased the library of the late Professor Lepsius, of Berlin. The "first part" of the catalogue, comprising, under 1,086 titles, the works on Egyptology, has just arrived, and, as a bibliographical guide alone, is very valuable and worthy of preservation for reference.

An inedited contemporary account of the early exploits of Joan of Arc has lately been brought to light in the archives of Rome. Examination shows that it is properly an additional chapter to the chronicle published at Poitiers in 1579 under the title 'Breviarium Historiale.' Several manuscripts are extant of this work, but only one, that at Rome, contains the part relating to the Maid of Orleans. The author of the narrative is unknown, but there are some indications in the text that he was an attaché of the Court of Martin V., and was in Rome in 1428-29. No new facts are brought to light.

Among the latest French announcements are the second series of M. Paul Bourget's 'Essais de Psychologie Contemporaine,' devoted to M. Dumas fils, the Goncourts, Amiel, Turgeneff, and M. Leconte de Lisle—whose name, by the way, was recently twisted in a *Herald* cable-message into "Le Comte de Lisle"; and an 'Étude sur Mistress Elizabeth Browning, suivie de ses quarante-quatre Sonnets portugais, et de quelques autres de ses poèmes, traduits par Charles des Guerlois.'

M. Auguste Vitu, who has been the dramatic critic of the *Figaro* for now a dozen years, has begun to collect into volumes the criticisms he has written from day to day, or rather from night to night. Under the title, 'Les Mille et Une Nuits du Théâtre,' two volumes have already appeared (Paris: Ollendorff; New York: F. W. Christern), coming down to March 29, 1874, when the "Comtesse de Sommerive" was acted in Paris not long before it was produced in New York as "Alixé." M. Vitu is not as well equipped or as acute a dramatic critic as M. Sarcey, and his articles naturally lack the judicial calmness of M. Sarcey's weekly deliverances; but they have a value of their own. They are often witty, and they are welcome in a form fit for preservation.

In a recent issue we inadvertently spoke of St. Paul as a great lumber-distributing centre. We should, of course, have said Minneapolis, as there is comparatively little lumber business carried on in St. Paul itself; but these two cities are so closely connected, geographically, commercially, and socially, that it is often difficult to think of them otherwise than collectively.

One or two persons have called our attention to the fact that Miss Jessie Fothergill's 'Healey,' noticed among recent novels, in No. 1064 of the *Nation*, is her first book, dating in England some ten years back, and not, as we had supposed from the date of its appearance here, her latest. Our inference, therefore, of decadence on the part of this writer should rather be changed into the opposite.

—"X." reminds us: "In your review of Ropes's 'Napoleon I.' your reviewer has illegally promoted our late visitor, Doctor Farrar, in his ecclesiastical rank. The Doctor is at present Vicar of St. Margaret's parish and also Archdeacon of Westminster, in the diocese of London. His deanery and even his episcopal palace may be awaiting him, but he certainly has reached neither yet."

—Balzac, in some dithyrambic remarks on the sense of touch and on the hand as its principal implement, states that "men of strong intellect have almost always had beautiful hands, the perfection of which is the distinctive index of a high destination." In support of this view he instances a number of well-known facts in common life. Had he lived in these days of experimental

psychological research he would have been enabled to greatly enlarge his notions on this subject. Professor G. Stanley Hall and Doctor H. H. Donaldson, of Johns Hopkins University, who, independently of the value of their discoveries, deserve commendation as being among the earliest pioneers in introducing in this country the exact methods of psychologic research employed in Germany, have issued, in a separate reprint from *Mind*, two pamphlets on the "Temperature-Sense" and on "Motor Sensations of the Skin," in which a number of curious observations, partly new and partly corroborative of the discoveries of Blux, Goldscheider, and others, are recorded. These, taken in connection with the biologic fact that all our senses have their genetic origin in the external embryological layer, justify the authors in claiming that they "indicate the skin as not only the primeval and only reliable source of our knowledge of the external world, or the archaeological field of psychology, but as a just-opening experimental domain of great breadth, where work seems now possible that may compare in both quality and quantity with that accomplished in physiological optics, and which may shed new light on some of the most fundamental problems of psychical action and unfolding." So little attention has hitherto been given to dermal psychology that it seems hardly strange that, even among educated persons, the notion should prevail that the "sense of touch"—or, still more vaguely, the "sense of feeling"—is the unique psychic function of the skin. The researches described in the pamphlets now before us show conclusively that not only is there a distinct and separate apparatus for touch, or pressure, and temperature, but that there are distinctly localized spots on the skin, on some of which cold is felt, on others warmth, and pain, and pressure, respectively. These spots are never superposed on one another; and a needle may, for instance, be plunged into a cold spot or a heat spot without causing any pain. The experiments showed that the skin between the cold spots was not sensitive to cold; that the points were differently distributed in different parts of the same individual, and in similar parts of different individuals; that they were very small but permanent, so that they could always be found again; and that they were easily exhausted. Between the heat and pain sensations, there seems to be a certain relationship. Contrary to Weber's statement, the oesophagus, through its entire length, was found sensitive to temperature.

—The experiments in testing the direction of an object moved on an invisible part of the skin and the various sensations produced are also full of interest and suggestion. With a slight electric stimulus, "for a time tickling is quite unpleasantly dominant, at other places the point seems to scratch, at others the thrilling, quivering sensation familiar in electric stimulation seems dominant, while at others sharp, sudden cutting pains, and at still others no sensations save that of a moving point, are felt. . . . It is, moreover, extremely hard to sharply differentiate and identify sensations that seem to be so impacted and run together, and which language has never before been called upon to disentangle." One of the most interesting and novel points in these pamphlets is the showing how the progress of medicine may unexpectedly help to solve a psychological problem. Thus the discovery of cocaine has demonstrated beyond all doubt that the sensations of heat and cold are completely differentiated from touch and pain. By means of a 5 per cent. solution of muriate of cocaine, Mr. Donaldson rendered his eye completely insensitive to pain or contact, while it still readily felt heat and cold. The drug had clearly paralyzed one class of nerves, leaving the others un-

influenced. With the assistance of these researches histologists will perhaps have less difficulty than heretofore in distinguishing these nerves from one another.

—A late London *Times* gives an account of the nomination of the sheriffs. As this office exemplifies the old etymology *honor est onus*, having no pay connected with it and being subject to onerous expenses, the number of people who with one consent began to make excuse was naturally very great. The principal reason for not wishing to serve was crippled resources; it is really touching to read of the long array of county gentlemen of consideration reduced to straits. Let the following serve as a specimen:

"In Leicestershire a gentleman asked to be excused on the ground that since 1879, when the agricultural depression began, his income had been greatly reduced; that many of his tenants had left, and he had 1,400 acres in hand, which he had to farm himself; and that he had, moreover, to meet a mortgage debt of £10,000 charged on the estate, and had for these purposes to borrow £14,000; that his principal tenant could not or would not pay his rent, and that most of his income was absorbed in charges and expenses."

The occasion was furthermore interesting as being one of the most ancient ceremonies of the law, which has existed for about six centuries. The Queen's Remembrancer attends in state costume, and reads over the names for each county; the list is afterwards to be laid before the Queen for selection, "Her Majesty," says the *Times*, "making her selection by pricking the list with a gold bodkin, a usage which arose, as Lord Campbell when Lord Chancellor told Her Majesty, in an age when kings could not write their names." Is this necessarily the reason? Or is it not rather merely to save writing, as the *Times* itself suggests? A somewhat analogous custom appears elsewhere; once when Emperor Claudius was going over the jury-lists, he objected to a man's serving who had a valid excuse, and one is reminded of "pricking the Sheriffs" and the Queen's gold bodkin by the word *expungeret*, 'punched out, pricked out,' used by Suetonius, *Claud. 15: cum decurias rerum actu expungeret, eum, qui dissimulata vacatione quam beneficio liberorum habebat responderat, ut cupidum iudicandi dimisit*.

—Professor Paul Fredericq, of Ghent, whose description of the systems of historical instruction in the universities of Germany and of France we have already noticed, has sent us a companion paper upon England and Scotland. As to the Scotch universities, it is almost literally true that there is no historical instruction given in them; only two or three pages are therefore devoted to Scotland. The universities of Cambridge, Oxford, and London, on the other hand, receive detailed consideration, and due credit is given to the energy and success with which historical study is pursued in them. Professors Seeley, of Cambridge, Stubbs and Freeman, of Oxford, and Beesly and Gardiner of London, with their able and industrious coadjutors, have worked a marvellous change in this branch of education; for it is only a few years since England was as derelict as Scotland now is. Even as it is, he thinks that there is a lack, in these institutions, of study of the authorities at first hand—what the Germans call *Quellenstudien*. The assigned work seems to be too much in the line of mere reading, especially at Oxford—a course of reading so varied and extensive that it seems likely to result in vague and superficial knowledge. The same with the examinations. It is generally recognized that the system of written examination is carried to a greater extent in England than elsewhere—we have reason to believe that the English themselves are coming to think this a mistake; and Professor Fredericq, from an inspection and comparison of the ex-

amination papers, comes to the conclusion that they point to a kind of work which covers too much ground, and consists too much in acquiring a large number of disconnected facts, in a considerable degree at second hand. However this may be, there is no doubt that the younger school of historical students in England are doing excellent work, thorough in preparation and admirable in execution. Their defect is at all events just the opposite to that which Professor Fredericq criticised in Germany, where it appeared to him that the too exclusive devotion to the study of original documents, in very minute points of detail, is apt to result in the loss of broad general views and a due sense of proportion.

—Professor Fredericq has sent us another recent publication, entitled 'De Nederlanden onder Keizer Kar. l.' (The Netherlands under Emperor Charles); the present publication being the first part, and covering the thirty first years of the sixteenth century. It is a duodecimo of 194 pages, and consists of fourteen chapters. No less than ten of these chapters are devoted to the history of the Reformation in the Netherlands during this period, and it would appear that the Reformation had got more of a foothold there at this early date than is generally supposed. The last two chapters treat respectively of the contemporary literature, art, etc., and of the general history of the Netherlands. The work is written in Flemish—essentially the same language as Dutch; but no person who reads German need have much difficulty with this related tongue, and students of the Reformation period will find here an interesting and neglected field.

—Histories of German literature are so numerous that one would suppose the production of one was obligatory on whoever purposed setting up as a critic; but upon closer examination one finds that, with the exception of Julian Schmidt's, and, very recently, Wilhelm Scherer's, they all are written by second or third-rate authors, and that one is superior to another only as respects its typography and date of issue. The real critics, such as Heine, Karl Hillebrand, Herman Grimm, and Paul Lindau, have published only monographs. The latest of these works, of which the third and concluding volume has just appeared, is by Franz Hirsch, and we find it advertised, not, in the usual manner, by "notices of the press," but in a more strictly commercial fashion, namely, by sample. The reader is invited to buy the work on the strength of the author's opinions of three writers of the day, which are given in full. The only one of the three (Karl Bleibtreu) for whom Mr. Hirsch has a good word, is quite unknown to us, though as he was not born till 1859 we probably shall yet have the pleasure of making his acquaintance. But the remaining two are old friends, and if Mr. Hirsch's judgments on other authors are as "spicy" as are his views of these, we shall not wonder if his book attracts considerable attention. His first victim is "E. Marlitt," whose "astonishing success is not due to any merit of whatever kind. Her books are a mixture of old maids' commonplace, of middle-class lubricity, partially concealed under a mantle of phrases," and of other things too numerous to mention. "In a word, in these novels good taste is outraged and healthy feeling corrupted," and much more in the same strain. Judged by any but a low standard, the "Marlitt" books are certainly worthless, yet they hardly deserve condemnation so severe as this. Such criticism, however, clears the air, and it might be worth while for responsible critics occasionally to take up our own works of a similar character, which, in spite of the high price incident to copyright protection, must, as regards sales,

put to shame the most popular issues of the cheap "libraries." Mr. Hirsch's third sample is devoted to Johannes Scherr, but we forbear to quote the savage attack on this "involuntary" historical novelist who "knew his public well enough to achieve wide success."

—Besides the men of science, a good many Americans will regretfully note the resignation by Sir Joseph Hooker of the directorship of that noble institution which is inadequately designated by its title, the Royal Gardens, Kew. The King's garden belonging to the little brick palace and grounds of George III. at Kew had somehow come to be botanically notable a hundred years ago; and, although decayed, it still preserved a certain importance and hopefulness when, in the year 1839, it was turned over by the Crown to the Government for more public and popular as well as scientific uses, and the late Sir William Hooker was translated from the professorship and garden at Glasgow, which he had made illustrious, to the charge of the now national establishment. "Kew" has ever since meant Kew Gardens, with its museums and herbaria and galleries, as well as its pleasure grounds, arboretum, and conservatories. It was developed from small beginnings into the great establishment which is now of unrivalled scientific importance as well as popularity; and all these years it has been under the direction of the Hookers, father and son, who indeed have made it what it is, and have so identified themselves with it that, just now, Kew without a Hooker will seem to be out of the course of nature. It is pleasant to know that the promotion of the assistant director, Mr. Dyer, places the establishment in the charge of a man of tried scientific as well as administrative ability—one, moreover, who, although he came without such ties, is connected by marriage with the Hookerian family.

—Still more pleasant and most important it is to know that this change which the late Director has decided upon, while still vigorous and of undiminished powers, is merely from administrative to more strictly scientific work, that he may prosecute more steadily and hopefully the botanical undertakings which he has in hand, and which are enough to task all the energies of a younger man, but which yet demand—as such work does—all the various knowledge and critical tact and sureness of judgment which comes only with long experience. And here let us record our dissent from the doctrine of Huxley's playful suggestion that every scientific worker should commit the happy despatch when he reaches the age of sixty years; that before this he will have done all the original work he ever will do, and thenceforward will be more likely to hinder than to help the progress of original scientific research. It is true enough that the older men will not be likely to strike out new lines or discover new principles, but the advance guard fights only a small part of the battle. If the veteran has ever done good work in his younger days, and has followed it up with the steady devotion that wins, he has not only acquired a deal of judgment, but has laid out more work than he can ever hope to accomplish, yet which no one else is likely to do so well, or at least so readily. Therefore let us hope still for years of excellent fruit-bearing in age by the retired President of the Royal Society and from his predecessor, the retiring Director of Kew.

—Readers to whom the story of the Waldensian revolt against Rome possesses perennial interest will find much food for thought in the 'Histoire Littéraire des Vaudois du Piémont,' by Edouard Montet (Paris: Fischbacher, 1885). Those who are familiar with M. Montet's previous investigations in the same field will be prepared to find in it a work of solid erudition and sound criticism.

The labors of Dieckhoff, Herzog, Bradshaw, and others have already served to dissipate the nebulous antiquity with which Perrin and Leger had succeeded in investing the development of the Waldensian faith, but it was reserved for M. Montet to give a conscientious examination and collation of all the remains of its literature preserved in the collections of Geneva, Strassburg, Cambridge, and Dublin. Although these are not as abundant as could be wished, they are sufficient to show how slow was the growth of what we are accustomed to regard as distinctively Waldensian doctrines, and how long the sectaries clung to the church which recognized them only to exterminate them. To indicate this has required close and laborious investigation and comparison, for the details of the subject are intricate, but M. Montet possesses the true historical instinct, together with the literary ability to present his results in a clear and perspicuous manner. No one hereafter can pretend to study the religious development of the middle ages without the assistance of this compact résumé of the spiritual life of the martyrs of Angrogna and Val Louise.

ORMSBY'S DON QUIXOTE.—I.

The Ingenious Gentleman Don Quixote of La Mancha. By Miguel de Cervantes Saavedra. A Translation, with Introduction and Notes, by John Ormsby, translator of the 'Poem of the Cid.' Macmillan & Co. 1885. 4 vols., 8vo.

It is not flattering to English enterprise and scholarship that, after nearly three centuries that have passed since the 'Don Quixote' was published, no adequate version has hitherto been engrafted on the national literature. The four best known performances in this field which have come down to us from Shelton (1612-30), Motteux (1712), Jarvis (1742), and Smollett (1753), represent fairly, perhaps, the possibilities of their day in England, but are certainly far behind the just requirements of modern readers. Shelton, when he made his version of the First Part, hurriedly, as he confesses,* had no auxiliaries of any kind to illustrate his text, and of dictionaries only that of Oudin, which appeared at Paris in January, 1607, since those of Percival, Minshew, and Pallet would be of little utility in a work like this of Cervantes. For the Second Part, he had now the Vocabulary of Covarrubias, which was an immense gain, though his translation does not show that he availed himself of it. Possibly he had, like Percival (let us hope not for similar reasons), long been a wanderer in the Peninsula, where he would acquire something better than a book knowledge of so difficult a language as the popular Castilian, by mingling with the very classes that represent the principal characters in our romance. At all events, his version is peculiarly interesting and valuable, chiefly because, as Mr. Ormsby justly remarks, "he had the inestimable advantage of belonging to the same generation as Cervantes." And after all, do we not owe to him (through Percival) the good word "Dapple," and scores of others, which the present interpreter has wisely adopted?

The three English translators of the eighteenth century had special difficulties to encounter, resulting from the lapse of time and the neglect of those earlier in the field to smooth the path. Those who had known Cervantes and the immediate generations who still preserved some traditions of his career, had now utterly passed away. In and out of Spain nothing was reported of the life of the great writer whose characters had long become proverbial in the leading languages of Europe. Even the singular old folio of Haedo,

*"Having translated some five or six years ago, the *Histoire de Don Quixote*, out of the Spanish Tongue, into the English, in the space of *fortie days*" (ed. of 1612, Dedication).

which had appeared as far back as 1612, and told of the birthplace and captivity of Cervantes, was not unearthed until after Jarvis's death, when the literary historian, Father Sarmiento, chanced to purchase the volume and communicated his discovery (1752). Moreover, they had no commentary, no aids to clear up the absurdities of a corrupt text and a slovenly composition, and above all they knew nothing of the Spanish people, the idiosyncrasies of type with which they had to deal. Therefore it is not surprising that they missed the true meaning of the book, converting it into a caricature, by treating as a facetious burlesque a story that depended for its power on being maintained as a veritable history, stored with credible facts, marvellous episodes, and grave philosophy.

In the times we have attained, in which the demand is more imperious because the facilities for thorough preparation are incomparably greater, there can be no valid excuse for an imperfect rendering of the 'Don Quixote,' and criticism, or, what is still more formidable, the public instinct, will not condone it. It is not enough to have acquired a certain knowledge of the language at home, surrounded by English ideas and comforts, and then to take the fast express for Paris, Bordeaux, Madrid, and Alcázar San Juan, carefully ensconced in the *coupé* and *berlina*, with rugs and lunch baskets, portmanteaux and revolvers, field-glasses and "Murrays," and, in this exclusive, unsympathetic, nineteenth-century outfit, to rush about among the simple peasantry of La Mancha, expecting to find windmills and ventas, Dulcineas and castles, Sanchos and asses, walking and talking and braying and looking just as fancy has painted them in the great prototype that no foreigner can ever fathom or interpret who approaches the battleground through that golden gate. And after all, it is not as a Manchegan that Sancho acts and speaks, but as an every-day or average Castilian of a certain class and breeding, who may be found as well in the Rondas of Madrid, the Zocolóver of Toledo, or under the arcades of Medina and Valladolid. To reach the people of his book, as Cervantes himself knew and portrayed them, the true investigator—that is, the true philosopher—will resolutely abandon railways, those spoilers of ancient civilizations and picturesque relics, will visit the smaller towns and villages in sash, jacket, and *montera*, mounted on Dapple, if it be harvest, when mules are in requisition, and horses are not to be had. He will act sagely and avert suspicion by first making friends with the *alcalde*, the cura, and the barber-surgeon, and with this *carte de séjour* he is competent to sit down at their board, dip his sop out of the common bowl, and learn to tip the *bota* without bringing the mouthpiece to his lips. He will cut his bread with the *navaja* that he keeps in his belt, and know how to put aside the persistent beggar with a *perdón hermano*. He will say *Jesús* (*ha-sooce*) when his neighbor sneezes, and respond *amen* to a chance quotation from the Spaniard's Koran. He will put on his hat, when bidden, in the presence of his host, because so do the "grandes" in the presence of their king. He will never laugh, which is un-Spanish, albeit they have the loudest word for laughter in the vocabulary of joy—*la carcajada*. He will boast of his "raneid pedigree," which simply means his genuine stock, without taint of Jew or Moor or Lutheran heresy; of the *honra* of his people, and of his personal honor as a cavalier, though he came to them mounted on an ass. No incongruities ever haunt the Spanish mind: the beggar may be an *hidalgo* "by the four sides"—that is, "by father and mother and grandparents two." But they are sober, abstemious, grave, dignified even in rags, hospitable in their way; and in these things, with their lofty words and solemn Castilian, resides the an-

tiphrasis of their character, so indispensable to fathom to him who would interpret their greatest and best linner. It is here and thus that the stranger will grasp the true spirit of that venerable vernacular, forged in the secrets of time under Roman dominion out of Celtic and Iberian habits and modes of thinking, welded so strong with Gothic spears and Saracen scimitars that no suture or scar is discernible more. This is indeed that something that cannot be learned from afar, for it contains in amalgam all the quaint grandeur of mediæval strife, and of those times when Spain's influence dominated the world in things temporal, as did the "Vicar of God" in spiritual things.

To comprehend a work like this masterpiece of Cervantes, the translator, or he who aspires to be one, must enter into the age it depicts, be in full sympathy with the people it portrays, feel the force of the grand old obsolete diction, patched and interlarded with an occasional trace of a still more antiquated speech. He must, therefore, have read and pondered the classics of Spain's chivalrous ages—that early literature, so distinct in its own organic aroma from the diluted Hispano-Franco-Latin of Castelar and the Athenæum. He must be conversant with the chronicles of her kings and heroes, published in the fine old Gothic editions, bound in their original vellum, with the fly-leaves scribbled with ancient signatures and the cabalistic rubrics of notaries and inquisitors; then the whole library of chivalry books, from Amadis to Polceigne, and down through the savory Celestinas, Lazarillos, and 'Pigsties of Pluto,' to their lineal descendants of to-day, the 'Pictures of Andalusia,' the sallies of the valorous Gorja, the 'Spaniard Self-Painted,' and the reviews of bull-baiting in the dialect of the "plaza." The 'Quixote' is not and never can be a text for schools, a model of literary style; its language is too thoroughly tainted, on the one hand, with the lofty hyperbole of the early fiction its author designed to decry, and, on the other, too deeply imbued with the spirit and caste that form so picturesque a background to the national life, complicated as it is by the successive superimpositions of the national history.

Thus provided, the interpreter of our day sits down to his task with the confidence of one who is master of his resources. He may now know more of his hero and of his best work than the contemporaries of that genius did—possibly than that genius himself; just as it is certain the historian of Charles and of Philip may, if he will, be better acquainted with their respective reigns than Sleidan or Sandoval or Cabrera ever was. The archives, the convent, those rich storehouses of correspondence, of pigeonholed secrets, of inconvenient prohibited literature, giving the caricatures, the pasquinades, the true history of things as the people understood them, are now laid bare in an age when the interested parties are all dead, and the living are curious. In the matter of auxiliaries, therefore, the Cervantista of 1885 has at his command a vast collection of biography, bibliography, and exposition illustrating the life, times, works, and death of his founder. The villages of La Mancha have been ransacked in their records; the archives and state papers of Simancas, Valladolid, Madrid, Alcalá, and Seville have poured forth their tardy "Newes from Spaine"; and personages long forgotten in the niches and vaults of convents, churches, and campo santos have had their petty jealousies, feuds, and weaknesses exposed to the public scrutiny. In the midst of it all, Cervantes, the poor *hidalgo* of a decayed family, stands forth as a big boy of twenty-one, through poverty only just out of school, inaugurating his career by writing album verses for his master in 1568, the year of horrors to Philip; then an *amourette*—a

Spanish one—a knife flashed in an officer's face; a sudden departure for Italy under the *agis* and *franchise* of a papal commissioner, to shield him from a criminal warrant issued in 1569; next a soldier under Don Juan at Lepanto and Navarino; a captive in Algiers for five long years; the ransom at last, which exhausts the slender store of his widowed mother and the marriage portion of his sisters; his return to an impoverished home, maimed in an unthankful service, to find his great patron dead and the ears of Government dull of hearing; his forced resumption of a soldier's life, still in the ranks, though a veteran; a second *amourette*, this time in Portugal, the effects of which will cling to him as long as he lives, and to his family after he is dead; his first literary work, the 'Galatea' of 1584, and his marriage the same year to a gentlewoman of La Mancha; his struggles for the next twenty years to eke out a precarious livelihood, with an occasional arrest and imprisonment resulting from a soldier's careless financial habits and from a generous provision of bottled ill-luck oozing out from time to time, till the mania for writing seizes him once more and holds him to the last. The 'Don Quixote' (First Part) follows in 1605, the 'Novels' in 1613, the 'Journey to Parnassus' in 1614, the 'Comedias' in 1615, as also the Second Part of 'Don Quixote,' and the 'Persiles y Sigismunda' in 1617, one year after his death—the dedication of which he had written "with one foot in the stirrup," about to start on the long journey whence there is no earthly welcome home.

Such an adventurous life has given us 'Don Quixote'; only such an experience could have evoked the *Novelas*, one of which, half written in the Flash language of Spain, savors of a fragment of personal history. But the details of this gloomy biography have not come down to us by contemporary narration, nor yet through the uncertain gossip of tradition; they have been wrung step by step from long-sought records by the diligent toil of a century and a-half of Spanish scholars, each adding his volume or his contribution, till to-day little that is essential remains to complete our knowledge of the man and his writings. Moran has drawn aside the veil from his escapade into Italy in 1568-9, a datum unfortunately overlooked by Mr. Ormsby, as also that of the Marquis de Molins, who threw open the records of the Convent in the Calle de Cantarranas (now Lope de Vega), where still lie undisturbed the bones of the great author and his singular household—even the Portuguese mother and her daughter Isabel Saavedra. The 'Burial Place of Cervantes' is to us one of the saddest of books, only relieved by the charm of the Marquis's flowing style; and these latest developments, interesting as they are, shed no new lustre on the novelist's name. For a decade of years we never passed the Convent of the Trinitarian Sisters in Madrid without feeling a profound respect for the Order that once opened its doors to receive the remains of Miguel de Cervantes and the surviving members of his unhappy family.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—IV.

ALL writers, even those of the better class, of stories for the amusement of insatiate boyhood, appear to succumb to the temptation of sacrificing probability to attractiveness. To this rule 'Wakulla: A Story of Adventure in Florida,' by Kirk Monroe (Harper & Bros.), offers no exception. The opening chapters, telling of a sick bank-cashier, who for health's sake leaves New England with his family in search of a warmer clime, are natural enough, but the march of events after the travellers have reached Florida is something most surprising. The energetic and capable doings of the recent invalid cashier are

sufficiently remarkable in themselves to make the story lively and improbable; but these are followed by adventures and developments which are much more extraordinary, not to say incredible. Our best magazines for the young (this story has recently appeared in *Harper's Young People*) seem, however, not to object to just such narratives. We are sometimes disposed to think that children are far too much "amused" in these latter days.

'Silvia's Daughters,' by Florence Scannell (Frederic Warne & Co.), is a little story of some French refugees at the time of the Revolution. It has no force or originality, and is not particularly well written, the action being sometimes too hurried. But it is quiet, natural, and pleasing. There are many illustrations, some of which are very pretty.

This year Miss Alcott contributes to the children's pleasure a volume of short stories, fairy-tales and others, called 'Lulu's Library' (Roberts Bros.). They are ingenious and amusing, and will please little girls very much, even if not quite satisfactory to the maturer critic, who might reasonably object that the ideas are occasionally grouped in mongrel fashion, and that some of the stories are too much like large sugar-plums. Three of them have previously appeared in *St. Nicholas*.

'Those Dreadful Mouse Boys' (Boston: Ginn & Co.) is the appropriately silly title of an incomparably silly book. The author styles herself "Ariel," but the dainty name should go with a daintier fancy. It is not every one who, like Hans Andersen, can transfigure the commonest things with poetic touch; and the result of "Ariel's" attempt to humanize mice, and infuse into their adventures poetry, pathos, morality, and even religion, is as disgusting and shocking as it is fatuous. Are story-tellers in league to pervert utterly the taste of the rising generation? That this one calls her book "A Double Story for Young and Old," does not help matters much. The illustrations are poor.

'Rico and Wiseli' (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.) contains two charming stories translated from the German of Johanna Spyri (author of 'Heidi') by Louise Brooks. These are tales of peasant life, the scene of one being the country near Berne; of the other, alternately the Upper Engadine, and Peschiera on the Lake of Garda. The translator seems to have done her work excellently; only once in a while does some slightly peculiar expression suggest a shade of carelessness. Each story tells of an orphan child whose sad experience of sorrow, adversity, and hard work is finally brightened by finding a happy home, and both narratives are not only simple and touching, but graceful, sprightly, and delightful as well. A vein of religious trust runs through them, which is full of sweetness untouched by bigotry.

We venture to class Mr. W. H. Beard's 'Humor in Animals: a Series of Studies with Pen and Pencil' (Putnam) among children's books, because adults will, we fear, find rather depressing the reasoning by which the author seeks to establish his thesis. To this thesis, by the way, we have not the slightest objection, but the difficulties are of course very great in proving that the actions of animals which have a droll effect on human observers had a humorous motive. Sport in a great variety of animals, and the love of mischief in a few, even the sense of shame in some, are sure indications that the brute creation has a sense of the ridiculous akin to that which man possesses. Want of literary dexterity, and a desire to argue the sense of humor in as many creatures as his pencil can make laughable, have caused Mr. Beard to labor unnecessarily. Several of his anecdotes are pointless, but enough remain which are very entertaining without re-

gard to their bearing on his theme, and the book improves as it goes on. The pictures are capital and will furnish amusement to young and old. The title-page deserves special commendation, and while the tail-piece counterfeits "Br. Rabbit" to the life, the portrait of "ole Br. Tarry-pin" on page 103 would draw tears of admiration from Uncle Remus himself. The book is very handsomely printed.

We can welcome the reprint of Ruskin's 'King of the Golden River' (John Wiley & Sons) for its own sake and for "Dicky Doyle's" illustrations, yet these rather because they are Doyle's than because they are his best. The suggestion of a rain-storm, on p. 29, has more mastery in it than any of the others.

Neither is Randolph Caldecott at his best in his designs for the late Mrs. Ewing's 'Lob Lie-by-the-Fire' (E. & J. B. Young & Co.); but they add to the attractiveness of this well-told and interesting story, humorous and pathetic by turns, with the author's moral vein felt rather than seen.

In harmony with the foregoing, but a larger and more elegant book, is the collection of stories and poems called 'In a Good Cause' (E. & J. B. Young & Co.), issued in behalf of a London charity for children. It ranges from Herodotus (paraphrased in "Pharaoh Rhampsinitus and his Mason") to Oscar Wilde, Andrew Lang, F. Anstey, and Bernard Quaritch. The illustrations are numerous and very good.

A careful collection of nursery rhymes and infant prose, prettily got up, is 'Sugar and Spice, and All that's Nice' (Roberts Bros.), in which we must not forget to remark the "index to first lines"—a rare condescension to this age. The cuts have been taken from Oscar Pietsch, Kate Greenaway, John Tenniel, and many other artists.

For children of varying ages Mary J. Morrison (who is styled "Jenny Wallace" on the title-page, and "Jenny Wallis" elsewhere) has compiled on a larger and more showy scale 'Songs and Rhymes for the Little Ones' (Putnam). American authors have, with few exceptions, been drawn upon, and of these the book is fairly representative. Two sets of borders in successive colors frame in the text; and here, too, we have an index of first lines, besides one of titles.

There is novelty, some good drawing, and refined verse in 'Tiles from Dame Marjorie's Chimney Corner, and China from her Cupboard' (E. & J. B. Young & Co.). The prevailing tint of tiles and china is naturally blue. The days of the week and their duties, the seasons, and holidays furnish topics for the unpretentious rhymes.

A certain appositeness in the case of "the Silent Man" marks the telling of the life of Grant in words of one syllable—"Our Hero, General U. S. Grant," etc., by Josephine Pollard (McLoughlin Bros.). "It is not a book for girls at all," the writer warns those unfortunates; "they will not care for it." But why should they be thought indifferent to a book which aims to "teach the least one of the small boys to fear God—to do right—to speak the truth—to love peace—and to be brave and true through and through"? May little girls not have such aspirations!

A Handy Anglo-Saxon Dictionary: Based on Grose's Grein, edited, revised, and corrected, with Grammatical Appendix, list of Irregular Verbs, and brief etymological features. By James A. Harrison, Professor of English in Washington and Lee University; and W. M. Baskervill, Professor of English in Vanderbilt University. A. S. Barnes & Co. 1885.

THE 'Handy Anglo-Saxon Dictionary' of Professors Harrison and Baskervill meets a real want. The few explorers who pushed their way

into this field could until lately manage to pick up copies of Bosworth or Lye; but now that there are classes in Anglo-Saxon in all the good colleges, it is impossible to supply them even with these old and incomplete and misleading helps. We have good primers and readers, and, thanks to Professors Harrison and Baskervill, and Professor Hunt, of Princeton, a couple of poems with sufficient vocabularies; but for extended reading a dictionary is needed. There is, to be sure, a new dictionary in preparation, of which two parts have appeared from the Clarendon Press, but it will be long before it is finished, and it is too costly for common class use. There is also a noble work by Grein, a complete vocabulary of the Anglo-Saxon poetry, so minute in its definitions and so complete in its forms and illustrative quotations as to be nearly a concordance of the whole poetry. This is now out of print, and the preparations for reprinting are slow. Meantime the German publishers have had an abridgment made, giving the words and definitions without the illustrative quotations. This abridgment has been done into English by Professors Harrison and Baskervill, and very well done. They have not merely translated the German definitions, but have worked the matter up by the help of other vocabularies and original work on some of the texts. They have thus been able to correct mistakes and add new definitions. They have also increased the value of the book very much for class work by preparing it for etymological study; cognate words in other languages are given, especially in German and English, and compounds are separated into their elements. Moreover, they have added a very complete outline of the formal part of the grammar. The table of irregular verbs is exactly suited to use with the vocabulary. It is in alphabetical order, and each verb is marked with its class.

The rest of the grammar seems to have been conceived on a different plane. The pronunciation is sometimes given in phonetic technicalities without definition or illustration; that of *c* and *g*, for example. The paradigms of the substantive are very numerous, but the arrangement is not simple, and there are no reference figures in the vocabulary. The simplest arrangement is the alphabetic order of stems used by March and Sievers; *a, d, i, u*. Professor Baskervill adopts the general principle, but his failure to separate *d*-stems from *a*-stems results in a series of paradigms almost as heterogeneous as the gender arrangements of Grimm and Sweet. The general classification of the verbs is excellent, but the strong alphabetic order is not carried out in the subdivisions of the *a*-roots, though it has been made familiar to our scholars by its use in the exhaustive papers on the ablaut presented to the American Philological Association by Doctor Wells, of Providence, 1882-1885.

Such matters will not much trouble the workers with the 'Handy Dictionary.' There is one thing that will: it is a dictionary only of the poems in Anglo-Saxon. How are they to read the prose? It is to be hoped that Professors Harrison and Baskervill, who have done so much for this department of study, will soon give us an enlarged edition, which shall contain the vocabulary of the current prose.

The Oldest School in America. An Oration by Phillips Brooks, D.D., and a Poem by Robert Grant, April 23, 1885. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THE Boston Latin School attained this year the venerable antiquity of two centuries and a half, and the occasion was improved by a celebration of which we have here a full account. The story of the rise of the School, of its successive mas-

ters and houses, and of its importance to liberal education in Massachusetts, is twice told, in prose and in verse. Doctor Brooks's review is graceful and genial, and is marked by some excellent characterizations, particularly of the late Master Gardner, who could have wished no better epitaph. The orator did not fail to emphasize the close relations which have ever existed between the Boston Latin School and its younger sister Harvard College. In return for an almost unbroken series of Harvard graduates as masters, the School has continued to supply the College with an annual contingent ranking among the foremost in scholarly discipline and ability. Doctor Brooks further laid a proper stress on the original democratic constitution of the School:

"It was the town's only school till 1682. Side by side on its humble benches sat the son of the Governor and the son of the fisherman, each free to take the best that he could grasp. The highest learning was declared to be no privilege of an aristocratic class, but the portion of any boy in town who had the soul to desire it and the brain to appropriate it."

Neither orator nor poet, however, noticed the great change which has taken place since Doctor Brooks's pupilage in the social standing of the School. Thirty years ago it was still natural, though no longer the rule, for the wealth and respectability of Boston to send their sons to the Latin School rather than to a private classical school. Old graduates belonging to "the upper ten thousand" had the same feeling toward it that college graduates have toward their alma mater:

"Où le père a passé, passera bien l'enfant."

To-day, as long since, if we are not greatly mistaken, the case is quite otherwise. Beacon Street (to use a significant local expression) no longer sends its sons to the Latin School, whether on sentimental or on any other grounds, although in the meantime the School has been endowed with the finest building of its kind in the world.

A corresponding change has taken place in the patronage of the grammar schools in the same city, directly traceable to the influx of the Irish population in the thirties and forties. The homogeneity of religion, morals, customs, and worldly condition was rudely invaded, and the public schools lost their hold on the civic pride, the republican idealism, and the confidence of parents. Families of moderate means had no alternative; the well-to-do resorted to the private school. Of even date was the beginning of the political revolution which has ended in giving Boston a Mayor of Irish birth. The first Mayor of the city, the father of Wendell Phillips, was a Harvard graduate, and so were eight of his nine successors in thirty years. After 1850, in thirty years there were but two Harvard graduates, and the majority had no liberal education. In 1852 the Whig party went to pieces on the slavery issue, and the mischievous whirlwind of Know-nothingism a few years later completed the political burial of "respectability" in Massachusetts. From that moment the historical continuity of Puritan, Revolutionary, and Federal Boston ceased. Society was divided, the middle classes first and then the lower classes came to the top, and now it is a problem how long forms and institutions will avail against the forces at work to make Boston equally unrecognizable by Cotton Mather, Benjamin Franklin, Harrison Gray Otis, and Edward Everett. That the Latin School could escape these influences was not to be expected; yet the city's money is still freely bestowed on it, and, as we have remarked, this changeable period has worked only to its advantage in respect to its local habitation and equipment.

History of Manon Lescaut and of the Chevalier des Grieux. By the Abbé Prévost, with a preface by Guy de Maupassant. Illustrated by Maurice Leloir. George Routledge & Sons. 1886. Pp. xxiv, 208.

'MANON LESCAUT' is one of the well-known books—at least in France, where everybody is supposed to be familiar with it, and ready to seize the least allusion to its contents. It is of the class of improper books which are not given to read to young people, in our day, because of the lives of the heroine and the hero, which are as degraded as can well be imagined—mercenary and wanton on the one side, insanely abandoned on the other. But it has no such freedom of description and *mise-en-scène* as 'Tom Jones' and 'Roderick Random,' which, nevertheless, are not excluded from our libraries as immoral. The French original being so guarded in manner, literal translation has not been impracticable, and the one before us seems to be faithful. Who has made it we are not told, although the page behind the title gives the names of the artist, both engravers, printers of text and plates, and maker of the ink. It is a curious custom that seems to be growing, this of ignoring the translator altogether. It is to be seen especially in journals devoted to study and research, where it is common to print articles by well-known writers, but in languages of which they have not the mastery. The translator is regarded as the private secretary or amanuensis whose toil is rewarded but not acknowledged.

The illustrations are very numerous—more than two hundred wood-cut vignettes at the heads of the pages, with graceful arabesques forming partial frames to the text, and twelve full-page engravings. Those who know Mr. Leloir's work—careful, skilful, watchful of incident, character, costume, and surroundings, but with very little *verve*, very little suggestion or force—will know what these are, in the main. Moreover, the book is a seemingly exact reproduction of the French publication, and that is a book in very many respects similar to the 'Voyage Sentimental' published the previous year. It may be added that the illustrations seem to have lost nothing in this English edition: they are even a little more delicate than in the French one. In all respects the get-up of this work is very handsome.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Christmas Tide in Song and Story. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. \$1.75.
Church, A. J. Isis and Thamestis: Hours on the River from Oxford to Henley. London: Seeley & Co.; New York: Macmillan. \$5.
Coan, T. M. Ounces of Prevention. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Field, Alice D. Palermo: A Christmas Story. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$5.
Folled by a Lawyer. A story of Chicago. Chicago: C. H. Kerr. \$1.25.
Francillon, E. E. and Senior, Wm. The Golden Flood. Harper & Bros. 15 cents.
Howe, Caroline D. Ashes for Flame, and Other Poems. Portland, Me.: Loring, Short & Harmon. \$1.
Kingsley, Charles. The Water-Babies. New edition. Macmillan & Co. \$4.
Livermore, E. P. Trustees' Handbook, a Manual for the use of Trustees, Executors, etc. Second edition. L. K. Strouse & Co.
Loffle, W. J. Windsor: A Description of the Castle, Park, Town, and Neighborhood. London: Seeley & Co.; New York: Macmillan. \$7.50.
Molesworth, Mrs. "Lis": An Old-Fashioned Story. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Myers's Commentary on the New Testament. Timothy, Hebrews, and Titus. Funk & Wagnalls. \$3.
Parker, J. The People's Bible: Discourses upon Holy Scripture. Vol. I. Genesis. Funk & Wagnalls. \$1.50.
Poore, Ben. Perley. Descriptive Catalogue of the Government Publications of the United States. September 5, 1774-March 4, 1881. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Porter, Rose. A Year of Blessings and a Blessed Year. Compiled. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. \$1.
Prévost, Abbé. History of Manon Lescaut. Illustrated by Maurice Leloir. George Routledge & Sons. \$20.
Rankin, Rev. J. C. The Coming of the Lord. Funk & Wagnalls.
Robinson, C. S. Sermons in Songs. Funk & Wagnalls. \$1.25.
Schoenof, J. The Industrial Situation and the Question of Wages. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.
Sprague, H. B. Shakspeare's Tragedy of Hamlet. Chicago: S. R. Winchell & Co. 35 cents.
The Insuperable Book. A controversy between Herbert Spencer and Frederic Harrison, with comments by Carl Hamilton. Boston: S. E. Cassino & Co. \$1.50.
The Final Science, or Spiritual Materialism. Funk & Wagnalls.

The Dawning: A Novel. Boston: Lee & Shepard. \$1.50.
Tennison, Lord. In Memoriam. Macmillan & Co. \$1.25.
Wallace, A. R. Bad Times: An Essay on the Present Depression of Trade. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
"Wonder Library." New edition. Wonders of European Art, by Louis Viardot; Wonderful Escapes, by Richard Whiteing; The Sun, by Amédée Guillemin. Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1 each.

Fine Arts.

THE AUTUMN ACADEMY.

THE more we are interested in, and the more we hope for, the progress of American art, the more essential it is that we should have no illusions as to its present status, and it is therefore well to confess in all soberness that the present Academy exhibition is not a good exhibition; that, indeed, viewed from the standpoint of serious art, it is an exceedingly bad one. With almost the single exception of Mr. Inness's pictures, it contains no work of very great merit, and it contains a vast deal of work, unlearned and untrained, that hardly rises to the level of intelligent amateurism.

It is quite natural, and perhaps, on the whole, quite right, that many of the best places in the exhibition should be occupied by the works of the Academicians, and it is an ungracious task to point out the shortcomings of these no doubt estimable and well-intentioned gentlemen; but the plain fact is that, from no fault of their own, most of them have never gained any real knowledge of painting. Such pictures as Mr. J. H. Beard's "It is very queer, isn't it?" Mr. T. W. Wood's "Grinding at the Mill," Mr. Cropsey's landscapes, with their startling combinations of red and green, even Mr. J. G. Brown's much better "Decorative Art," can only be considered by the serious critic as the well-meant productions of amateurs. Much better than these, because of its seriousness of aim, is Mr. Winslow Homer's "Herring Net." Mr. Homer has done some work, especially in water-color, for which every lover of true art should be thankful, and his pictures are always deserving of the most respectful attention; but it is nevertheless true that his technical achievement in oil is small, and that the present work is unpleasant in color and weak in drawing. Besides these men, whom we only reproach with feebleness, there are others, such as Messrs. De Haas and Thomas Moran, to whom we make the much graver reproach of falsely directed cleverness. Mr. Moran's work, in especial, is very clever and altogether false and theatrical, and no painter we know of could exercise a worse influence upon his admirers. But there is one of our elder painters for whom we have nothing but admiration and respect. George Inness has four pictures in the exhibition, and at least three of these are better than any other man's work to be seen there. Between the old generation, who cannot paint, and the younger, who, too frequently, cannot do anything else, Mr. Inness holds a position almost alone—that of a painter of great technical achievement who is yet preëminently an artist. Where he more especially falls short of the great French landscape painters is in his lack of feeling for form and style. His composition is often ragged and without dignity of mass or line, and his foregrounds, as in the "Pastoral Landscape" here, are apt to be vague and unsubstantial; but these faults are largely compensated by a depth of poetic temperament and a passionate color-sense that place him high among the landscape painters of the world. In his "Nantucket Moor" there is an almost unsurpassable sunset sky.

Most of the better known among the younger painters—those who make the strength of the Society of American Artists—never send to the Academy now; but every year brings new recruits, and the most encouraging thing about the present exhibition is the number of excellent

studies by comparatively unknown men. They hardly paint pictures as yet—most of them—but they have sent here a number of portraits, study-heads, etc., which show by their mere numbers, and in spite of some faults, that there is a large and constantly increasing amount of painterlike ability in the country. It is all welcome, and when we have still more of it the creative genius will come; what we first need is a foundation of knowledge. Among the best of the works of this class are three portraits by Wilson De Meza, Irving R. Wiles, and J. R. Strickler. There is good painting in all three of them, which would be more promising if it were not for a certain air of definite accomplishment, as if they were satisfied with a method adopted from a master and need search no further. Mr. De Meza's is perhaps the most promising of the three, but it is unfortunate that the head is not as well painted as the rest of his canvas, which is very clever indeed.

Another promising picture by a young man is Mr. Otto H. Bacher's "Richfield Centre." Mr. Bacher is already well known as an etcher, but this picture shows that he has the stuff of a painter in him as well. It is unequal, and the figures in the foreground and the horse of the passing milk-cart are insufficient in drawing, the latter enough so to give a comic air to the picture which may blind the careless observer to its real merit; yet this merit is very great. All the middle distance and background—this sleepy country town, with its church and "store," bathed in white sunlight—is painted with a truth of observation and justness of impression quite unequalled, in its way, by anything else in the Academy.

Two or three other things may be spoken of in this connection, such as "La Mère Marie," by Carl Hirschberg, "Jeanne," by J. Harison, and "A Dutch Fisher Girl," by Wm. J. Baer, which are all good, unpretending studies of heads, though the last two are somewhat blackish in color. Margaret W. Leslie has a portrait, presumably of herself, which also shows workmanlike qualities, but in which there is a little too much dependence upon bitumen. Mr. Frank R. Green has a fairly good study which he has tried to dignify by entitling it "Dreams of the Past," and Mr. Coffin a nicely painted study of a wo-

man seated in the grass, the landscape of which is not, however, as good as the figure.

There is a group of our younger painters who, following in the track of Mr. Ulrich, are devoting themselves to extreme finish. The most notable of these here represented are Louis Moeller, with "A Moment's Rest," which is of a very unpleasant blue color almost throughout; G. W. Brenneeman, with "Family Relics," very good in its way; and Charles X. Harris, with "The Mowers." There is much hard and serious work in these pictures, but we cannot but think it in large part wasted. The search for mere detail is a false direction in art, and it is to be lamented that it should be so much in vogue at present as to discourage a larger method in men who are capable of it.

In landscape, with the exception of Mr. Inness's work, already mentioned, there is little of importance. Mr. Edward Gay's "Washed by the Sea" is given undeserved prominence by its size and its occupation of the place of honor, for its intrinsic qualities hardly rise above honorable mediocrity. Messrs. Murphy and Crane send slight variations on their well-known themes, and Mr. Bliss Baker has here the most crude and spotty picture we have yet seen from him. Mr. John R. Stites's "Late Autumn" is a piece of good, honest work, but uncomfortably blackish in tone. Curious and interesting in their way are three little pictures, hung side by side in the corridor, painted by Messrs. Henry P. Smith, R. C. Minor, and R. A. Blakelock, and noticeable for their external resemblance to the "old masters" of modern landscape art.

A very good architectural study, without much pictorial pretension, is "Bronze Horses of St. Mark's," by Charles C. Coleman, in which the effect of the patches of gilt on the green bronze is excellently rendered, and the painting of all the architectural detail in bright pure color is very satisfactory. As a study its greatest fault is a slight lack of atmosphere. Similar, but not quite so good, is "A Rainy Day in the Piazzetta," by William Graham.

Other pictures which hardly fit into any of these categories are worthy of mention for their superiority to the mass around them. "Youth,"

by Geo. C. Lambdin, is a repetition of his water-color of last year. The figure is pretty in sentiment, but dry, and the landscape is not sufficiently interesting for the space it occupies. The figure would be more telling on a smaller canvas. "The New Purchase," by Francis C. Jones, is the work of a man of talent who should do better. The figures are not sufficiently well drawn, and the blue-and-green iridescence of color is distressing to the eye. Mr. Robert Koehler, in "The Forge," gives us a very true color impression; and if the figures were better drawn, there would be little to ask for. At any rate, they are small and unimportant. "Scherzo," by F. W. Freer, is clever and pretty, but it is a pity he did not take the pains to put something more behind his figure than a conventional "background." E. M. Ward's "Grandmother Spinning" is a piece of serious work, but is hard and colorless. Mr. Bridgman's "Horse Dealers" is, though rather hard and small in manner, far above the average of his present work, and in refreshing contrast with the tricky cleverness of his other two contributions. If Mr. Bridgman always did as well as this, we should have little to complain of. "Yearling Heifers," by Carlton Wiggins, shows the influence of Van Marcke, and is fairly good. "Mending his Ways," by Alfred Kappes, has good qualities, but is surely too pale, the lights upon the black skin being almost pure white. Mr. Millet's "Potter's Daughter" does not do him justice. Of course it shows a certain training, but is somewhat perfunctory—a picture for the public and not for artists. Mr. C. Y. Turner is somewhat unhappy in his "Portrait." Neither in size nor tone is there any proportion between the young lady and the rest of the picture. Mr. Church has one of his singular formless and almost colorless compositions, which nevertheless always have an undefinable charm, and Percy and Leon Moran have two of the sparkling frivolities for which they are known.

It is highly improbable that this list contains all that is worthy of notice, but it is impossible to search further for the rare exceptions among works which, we repeat, whether by beginners or men of reputation, for the most part hardly rise above amateurism.

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